

# SATURDAY REVIEW

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 2,594 Vol. 100.

15 July 1905.

6d.

## CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
NOTES OF THE WEEK . . . . .	69	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES (continued):		CORRESPONDENCE (continued):	
LEADING ARTICLES:		A Fantasy Misbegotten. By Max		S. Giles's in the Fields. By Frank J.	
A Mis-Deal . . . . .	72	Beerbohm . . . . .	80	Adkins . . . . .	85
England and the Moorish Conference .	73	Watered Gardens . . . . .	81	The Physique and Improvement of our	
The Condition of Russia . . . . .	74	Motoring . . . . .	82	People. By the Rev. F. M. Burton .	85
The Volunteer Problem . . . . .	75	Chess . . . . .	83	Bearing-Reins on Horses . . . . .	86
The Tariff Reform Muster . . . . .	76	Bridge . . . . .	84	REVIEWS:	
THE CITY . . . . .	77	CORRESPONDENCE:		Professor Dicey on Legislation . .	86
INSURANCE: University—National Mutual		"The Royal Swede Unfortunate." By		Preaching by Paradox . . . . .	87
of Australasia . . . . .	77	Albert E. K. Wherry . . . . .	84	The Athenians at Home . . . . .	88
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES:		The Franco-German War Scare. By		An Australian Testimony to Shakespeare	89
Excuses . . . . .	78	P. J. Damania . . . . .	85	A Picture-Book of Rome . . . . .	90
The Poor Music Teacher. By John F.		Parliamentary Reform. By J. A. Reid .	85	NOVELS . . . . .	90
Runciman . . . . .	79	John Graham of Claverhouse. By C.		NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS . . . . .	91
		Sanford Terry . . . . .	85	RECENT LAW BOOKS . . . . .	92

*We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications: and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.*

## NOTES OF THE WEEK.

The redistribution scheme of the Government, in the shape of resolutions which are to be submitted to the House on Tuesday, was issued from the Local Government Board on Monday. Mr. Gerald Balfour issued with them an explanatory statement, made very necessary by the curious formula in which the relation of members to population was expressed. In many essentials the principles of Mr. Gladstone's scheme of 1885 are adopted; but since that was passed increase and change of population have upset the ratio of disparity between large and small constituencies. If we take extremes it has risen from about 5 to 1 to 16 to 1 and the new scheme would very nearly restore the proportion of 1885.

As it was decided to keep the present membership of the House at 670 the numerical ratio had necessarily to be changed. The standard unit of population in relation to each representative is at present something less than 54,000, with the qualifying proviso that no constituency under 15,000 may return a member. It is now proposed to raise this minimum to 18,500 and the standard unit to 65,000. That is to say any constituency with population between these numbers will return one member. The proposal is simple enough in regard to these one-member constituencies as also to those returning three or more members. In this latter case the numerical unit will apply strictly: a member will be given to every 65,000 inhabitants. The principle is a little complicated by the treatment of the two-member constituencies of 1885; but roughly the meaning of Mr. Balfour's formula is that populations of 65,000—instead of 50,000—shall be qualification for a second member. London is treated as exceptional and the effect of the new proposal is to accept the existing metropolitan boroughs as Parliamentary boroughs, with the same proportional representation.

To the majority of electors the most vital part of Mr. Balfour's statement will be the lists of seats gained and lost to particular localities, though both gains

and losses are less than if the principles had been more consistently applied. Many of the comparisons are interesting: Surrey will rejoice, Bath will feel slighted, and Kilkenny furious. The island of Britain will gain in all its parts: England seventeen seats, Wales one, and Scotland four. Since the total of members remains the same, Ireland loses what Britain gains.

When a list of the seats to be disfranchised by the first Reform Bill was read out in the House of Commons several of the members were moved to tears. We do not fear any such depressing scene in the House of Commons to-day, but the purely personal side is not without its touches of interest. On one occasion, after Lowe—M.P. for London University and ex-M.P. for Calne—had attacked him with extreme bitterness, Disraeli retorted stingingly that, but for him, Lowe would not be in the House. The Government seem to have snubbed Mr. Gibson Bowles even more signally; they have not thought it worth while by raising the minimum from 18,500 to a little over 20,000 to disfranchise King's Lynn. There are perhaps a few other entertaining features: for instance, Durham must fall, whilst Canterbury, after all, is saved. We may lose Mr. Elliot, but we shall retain Mr. Heaton.

It is intimated by the "Times" that the population of those constituencies in Ireland which are to be disfranchised take the news calmly enough. We doubt rather whether the writer who offers this bit of information has had time or opportunity to gauge the feeling of the Irish electors in this matter. The truth is he is guessing. It is, however, safe to infer that many of the electors of constituencies which the Government propose to disfranchise await their fate with philosophy. It is not so much the elector who minds losing his member as the member who minds losing his elector. And when you come to think of it, how is the average Englishman, with or without a vote, much richer, wiser, more comfortable, more secure of justice, for his direct representative in Parliament?

Rhondda has no member of its own to-day; by the redistribution scheme it will have a member. Will the inhabitants be better off under the new order of things? Or, take King's Lynn—Mr. Bowles is a very clever and active man, who, we are sure, does all he need for his constituents. But supposing King's Lynn were merged into the county division—would its average inhabitant be injured thereby? We question it. Will Wands-worth increase in prosperity and civic spirit or patriotism

when Mr. Kimber has a colleague? We are perfectly open to conviction in this matter, but we shall not feel at all sure that a constituency is the wealthier and wiser through its direct representative in Parliament until we have seen some statistics bearing on the question, or scientific proof. These have never yet been afforded.

Of course this is not to say that none in any constituency in England are the richer for their member. But this is not necessarily because he "represents their interests" in Parliament—it may be because he has more or less money to spend in his constituency. It is notorious that many constituencies, to which no particular odium of venality clings, attach the greatest importance to the question of whether or not their member or candidate is wealthy. Losing their old and esteemed representative, the electors, or rather the party organisers, will meet, and discuss who is likely, among the possible candidates, to bring substantial money into the division and spend it freely there. Trade must be considered. Better no M.P. at all than an M.P. whom you have to support—this is a common enough point of view. It is more dishonest to deny, than cynical to affirm, that it is so.

The skirmish between Mr. Balfour and Mr. Redmond on Wednesday over redistribution as affecting Ireland raised difficult questions of political science which neither combatant seemed quite to realise. The paradox of a Nationalist citing the Act of Union against a Unionist Premier has given an obvious chance to politicians and journalists, some of whom seem to think that Mr. Redmond in such a rôle suggests the devil quoting Scripture. Yet surely the Nationalists are perfectly justified, from their point of view, in maintaining that so long as the Union between England and Ireland is in force its provisions shall not be arbitrarily rescinded to the detriment of the weaker partner. Mr. Gladstone probably violated the Act by imposing the income-tax on Ireland in 1857, and indubitably broke it by disestablishing and disendowing the Church of Ireland in 1869.

The Unionist majority in the Irish Parliament in 1800 were led to believe that the establishment of their Church was once for all put beyond the competence of the Imperial Parliament to disturb; on no other terms could the Union have been passed. But the Ireland which made the treaty was an oligarchy exclusively Protestant and attached to the Imperial connexion: the Ireland of to-day is a democracy preponderantly Roman Catholic and with an apparently permanent Separatist majority. Church disestablishment, though a breach of faith, was approved by the Irish democracy and cannot be held to have benefited Great Britain at the expense of Ireland. No doubt a treaty of incorporation should merge the two countries in one, and the legislature of the united realm cannot be bound for all time by provisions based on the circumstances of the moment.

Unfortunately the Act of Union did not completely incorporate Ireland, for it left a separate viceregal establishment, a separate judiciary, a separate exchequer for sixteen years, while a glance at the imperial statutes shows the absurdity of pretending that Ireland is not still considered a separate political entity—except when financial relations are being discussed. Again, Ireland was in 1800 given something like fifty members too few on the population basis of the time, and to the plain man there is something repellent in the notion that she is now to be penalised for the decrease of the population after being debarred from a proportionate number of members when she was populous. A reduction of the Irish representation may be supported on various grounds, but this at least is certain, that it will effectually undo the effects, such as they are, of the conciliatory policy of the last decade, and will supply Nationalist agitators with new and very plausible arguments in support of their doctrine that England does not keep her promises. We do not see that much will be gained in practical politics. The landed gentry and professional men of the three Southern provinces, who are preponderantly Unionist but not in the least

Orange, will still be left without a single representative in the Commons except the members for Dublin University.

Mr. Arnold-Forster's defence of his Volunteer policy in the House of Commons on Thursday was decidedly effective; and he had no difficulty in showing that a man who has been a Volunteer at school, college and afterwards, is not likely to entertain the sinister designs against the existence of the force, which its more hysterical champions imagine. Still a War Secretary has other and greater issues than volunteering to consider. He maintains that a higher organisation than the brigade one is desirable. This we think decidedly wrong. A Volunteer division, unless largely "stiffened" by regular troops, would be a most unmanageable body, and practically useless. Later on the same evening Mr. Arnold-Forster contributed an elaborate defence of his military policy; and a refutation of Lord Roberts' strictures. As is generally the case with War Secretaries, his account was most eulogistic, if not particularly convincing. One point at any rate is satisfactory. He informs us that the Reserve has almost reached the figure of 100,000. But we must remember that these reservists are mainly men of only three years' service with the colours. Consequently they cannot have received so much training as the reservists who were found so effective in the late war.

In his speech last Monday in the House of Lords, Lord Roberts stated that he was convinced that our armed forces are now as unfitted for war as they were in 1899 at the outbreak of the South African War. That is too euphemistic. The army to-day is infinitely more unfitted for war than it was then. Owing to the uncertainty as regards establishments &c. and the numerous changes which have taken place, it is impossible that mobilisation arrangements, which worked admirably in 1899, can now be nearly so far advanced. The Reserve then was more effective than it is now; and the condition of the Militia and Volunteers was more satisfactory. Moreover the War Office was manned by a far abler set of military chiefs then than it is now. Will anyone contend that Sir Neville Lyttelton is better qualified to be the chief military official at the War Office than was Lord Wolseley in 1899? Is General Douglas as Adjutant-General a good exchange for Sir Evelyn Wood, General Plumer as Quartermaster-General for Sir Charles Mansfield Clarke—perhaps the best Quartermaster-General we have ever had—or General Wolfe Murray as head of the Ordnance Department for Sir Henry Brackenbury? The balance is altogether in favour of 1899 as against 1905.

There may be a touch of gracelessness about Mr. Buchanan's curiosity as to the £5,000 a year Lord Roberts is still drawing from the British taxpayer. But he certainly put Mr. Arnold-Forster in a most awkward hole. At first disposed to waive aside these awkward questions as impertinent, he was reduced at last to put forward Lord Roberts' services on the Council of Imperial Defence. But the other members of the Council don't get £5,000 a year. At that rate why not give Lord Wolseley his £5,000? The Council would get quite as good value for the money. Of course, we all know that it is really a "compassionate allowance", in legal phrase, to Lord Roberts for the abrupt conclusion of his commandship-in-chief.

Most of the amendments on the Aliens Bill during the week's debate have been rejected; but after a long discussion Mr. Balfour agreed that a Government amendment should be brought forward on the report stage to safeguard the right of asylum for religious and political refugees. This will provide that permission to land shall not be withheld if an immigrant can prove that he is seeking admission solely to avoid persecution or punishment on religious grounds, or for an opinion of a political nature, or to avoid danger to life or limb, or danger of imprisonment, on account of his religious belief. The amendment to classify as undesirable aliens brought in under a contract of labour was defeated. A clause was admitted exempting a shipmaster from responsibility for an alien who is permitted to



land. On the report stage of the financial resolution it was stated that the expense of administering the statute was estimated at about £24,000 annually but that the amount would probably diminish in course of time.

The Bishops of Southwark, of Birmingham and of Stepney have written to the "Times" urging that the Government should not drop the Unemployed Bill. They speak earnestly of the value and importance of the bill, of the hopes with which it was regarded by those who are acquainted with the needs of the poor, and of the hopelessness of attempting to deal with the unemployed without an organisation such as the bill provides. Unfortunately their appeal is too late. Mr. Balfour stated in the House of Commons on Thursday that the only possibility of passing the bill is by agreement to the withdrawal of the clauses relating to rate aid. But, as the Bishop of Stepney points out, these clauses are vital; and the futility of opposing the bill on this point is the more obvious for the reason that if the bill is not passed rate aid will be given "probably lavishly and not wisely" by the borough councils.

The troubles of redistribution are not confined to the Home Government. They enter into one of Lord Curzon's reforms which has now attained completion in the partition and reconstruction of the province of Bengal proper—known as the Lower Provinces. It has for some time been obvious that the growth of population and the increasing complexity of administration have rendered the charge too heavy for a single lieutenant-governor and some rearrangement of territory had become necessary. Great difficulties surrounded each of the proposed schemes. They were full of geographical, ethnological and financial difficulties, while questions of administration, language, means of communication and a host of other questions cropped up in all directions. The scheme finally adopted is perhaps the best, but it cannot hope to escape criticism. Broadly speaking it consists in the transfer of Eastern Bengal to Assam and in certain interchanges of territory with the Central Provinces which aim rather at administrative convenience than relief to the Bengal Government.

It is particularly unfortunate that the measure excites the strong opposition of the leaders of the Bengali community. The division of a population ethnologically identified and speaking the same language and the transfer of perhaps the most typical portion to another local government would naturally not be acceptable to a people who like to talk of themselves as a nation or a race and who have political aspirations. Sentiment counts for much in such matters, but it must yield to the practical necessities of government. This measure has been the subject of protest in Bengal where some recent remarks of the Viceroy concerning a little national weakness, to which Macaulay once gave prominence in a well-known passage, have not been inductive of a conciliatory spirit among the leaders of local opinion.

The death of Sir W. Muir K.C.S.I. severs a link with the past. In one way he was a typical Anglo-Indian. He had it is true outlived his time. Still few men who have held such a succession of high offices and contributed so largely to the administration of India have been so little known outside the country for their services within it. Besides holding provincial posts of every grade he had been Secretary to the Government of India, Lieutenant-Governor, member of the Viceroy's Council and Finance Minister. A distinguished Arabic scholar, he wrote a *Life of Muhammad* which is still a standard authority. Retiring in 1874 after a service of thirty-seven years he became Principal of the Edinburgh University and held that post for many years. During the Mutiny he was in the fort at Agra, then the seat of government, and acted as chief Intelligence officer. The extremely interesting records he kept up during that period were preserved and published with his prefatory sketches in 1902.

The success of German diplomacy in the Moorish matter was acknowledged by M. Rouvier in a speech in the Chamber on Monday. He there read aloud the two final letters, exchanged between himself and Prince Radolin, which constitute the text of the agreement as

to the conference. The agreement contains a more important point than the sum of the verbal assurances given by Germany, though they are many, including a promise to recognise the special geographical situation of France and to respect her agreements with England and Spain. M. Rouvier has agreed that the two Governments shall together prepare a programme for the Sultan to bring before the Congress, and their association recognises the extent of German claims in Morocco to a degree past history and German commercial interests hardly demand. Whatever the issue of the conference, the diplomatic success of Germany is emphatic. Lord Lansdowne announced in the House of Lords on Tuesday the decision of this country to take part in the conference. It is the necessary corollary to M. Rouvier's agreement.

The courtesies of the meeting of the English and French fleets at Brest are scarcely to be expressed in any idiom less suave than the French. M. Delcassé is reported to have told an interviewer that the meeting was a ceremony préparé et calculé, a rehearsed mark of emphasis to celebrate a stage in a diplomatic movement. The changes in that movement perhaps deprive the meeting of some of its calculated effect. It coincides with the agreement of France to meet Germany in a conference which Mr. Lowther declared to be unwise. But the many pretty things said on both sides and the exchange of courtesies are nevertheless an acknowledgment of the better part of M. Delcassé's activity during the past two years.

The capture of the island of Sakhalin, long expected, was reported at Tokio on Monday. It was managed with the precision of the greater battles and with small loss. It is not improbable that the approach of the peace negotiations influenced the Japanese to undertake the expedition which is almost the only action during the war which has had no direct bearing on the principal issue. The strategic value of Sakhalin has been under-rated in one direction: the position of the place helps geographically to convert the Sea of Japan into a close lake, in which the semicircle of islands now completely shuts off Vladivostok from the open sea. Beyond this the Japanese have long had a sentimental attachment to the place; and the coal and petroleum, and it may be unexploited sources of mineral wealth are worth possession.

The end of the "Kniaz Potemkin" was tame. The mutineers' opportunity was gone when they failed to draw other vessels of the fleet into sympathetic mutiny; and realising that the game was up the leaders surrendered the ship to the Roumanian Government in the harbour of Constanza on Sunday. The crew, who divided among them all the portable wealth of the ship, were treated by the Roumanians as foreign deserters and allowed passage to any frontier. A small group remained behind avowing that they were unwilling conspirators, and six officers were left imprisoned and in a pitiful state, on the vessel. She was taken over by Admiral Kruger in command of the Black Sea fleet two days later. His reluctance to attack the mutineers is capable of many interpretations; but we see no reason to infer that he feared the loyalty of his own crews. After all it is no small thing for a nation which has just lost two complete fleets to risk the total destruction of the largest remaining vessel.

Of the whole list of assassinations of public men in Russia none has been prompted by a more aimless barbarity than the last. Count Shouvalov, Prefect of Police in Moscow, was a magistrate of that patriarchal type which yet exists in Russia. After his usual manner, he was engaged in personally hearing the pleas of any Moscow inhabitant who felt a grievance. It was his custom to court approach, and he was listening to the complaints of the first of a long queue of citizens, when the next in the line fired three shots from a revolver of which the second was fatal. The assassin was at once seized by the crowd. No motive for his crime has been suggested beyond the fact that Count Shouvalov was a member of the police; and we may hope that the baseless savagery of the act will at any rate make impossible any further expression of the indecent apologies for assassination such as have previously been heard.

The Eighty Club no doubt knew what it was doing when it invited the Canadian manufacturers to accept its peripatetic hospitality on Monday last. Mr. W. K. George, the President of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, made a speech entirely after the Club's own heart: full of altruistic sentiment, imperial in its peroration and essentially selfish throughout. Mr. George assures Great Britain that whilst Canada has no wish to dictate, the Canadian manufacturer will see to it that any tariff arranged between them is non-competitive, in other words frankly protective against British manufactures. How fine his talk of a desire to assist in building up imperial business in the face of such a confession. But the Canadian manufacturers are not the only or even the first interest that the Dominion Government has to consider, and Mr. Robson's reminder in proposing the toast "The trade of the Empire" that "the interests of any must always operate in strict subordination to the common interest" must have jarred on the ears of both Mr. George and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. If that "supreme law", as Mr. Robson called it, were supreme, the opposition to tariff reform would be short-lived.

The county court judge at Westminster on Wednesday made rather short work of the claim of M.P.s and public characters to preferential treatment in London locomotion. A dray and Mr. Chamberlain's brougham came into collision and the latter was injured. Mrs. Chamberlain, who was in the brougham and happily was unhurt, declared that neither driver was to blame—it was a pure accident. But the coachman claimed "preference" on the ground that he was "on Mr. Chamberlain's business" and that Mr. Chamberlain was a public character. The judge dismissed the case. The principle of this "preference" of course is that M.P.s must not be impeded on their way to their parliamentary duties, an ancient and at one time a really necessary precaution. Hence the excellent constables round the House of Commons sternly hold back traffic when a member of Parliament or indeed almost anybody employed at St. Stephen's wants to cross the road. So far so good. But the coachman's theory goes further. If on an M.P.'s errand you have the right to the road. It comes to this. The M.P. must not be impeded—the M.P.'s coachman must not be impeded—the M.P.'s coachman's stable-boy must not be impeded. We might as well at once divert all traffic from Westminster Bridge Road and Whitehall when the House is sitting.

The Secretary of the Tariff Reform League, which held its annual meeting on Friday in last week too late for a weekly review to notice the proceedings or Mr. Chamberlain's speech, announced "great developments" during the previous year. It is true, we are glad to know, that the number of members steadily increases, but where are the other "developments"? And we observe, not without some uneasiness, that the Secretary promises "to keep up a withering fire in the autumn". What is he going to wither? We are a little nervous on that point. On which side is he going to turn his guns? We remember accounts of Unionist meetings in certain bye-elections where the audience literally did wither away, under, it is said, the fire, that is, the management, of the Tariff Reform League.

No explosion, out of the long list in the Rhondda Valley, has been more terribly destructive of life than the disaster at Pontypridd on Tuesday. Out of 124 men who were working in the shaft only two or three, it is feared, have escaped alive. The force of the explosion was such as to compel a long delay before the rescue party could get down the shaft; and when they reached the bottom the afterdamp had suffocated every man who had not been killed by the first force of the exploded gas. The difficulty and danger of rescue work, which as always was undertaken with immediate courage, are not difficult to realise. The main shaft is about 1,350 feet deep and the lead or drift in which the gas exploded is a 9-foot tunnel 3,000 feet in length. We know as yet nothing of the cause of the disaster.

#### A MIS-DEAL.

A REDISTRIBUTION of seats is not of course so serious a branch of parliamentary reform as an alteration of the franchise. The latter has invariably meant a lowering of the standard of qualification in the elector; and to those who think, as we do, that the vote is not a right but a privilege, a reward, as it were, of civic fitness, this depression of the level of political power is always to be deprecated, and always, if possible, to be deferred. The resolutions for the rearrangement of the constituencies about to be submitted to Parliament by Mr. Gerald Balfour raise a different and a less grave issue, though still a grave one. It is a question, not of the fitness or unfitness of the individual voter, but of the distribution of voting power amongst the various urban and rural units of which the total constituency is composed. It may be granted at once that the present arrangement of seats is indefensible. It is absurd that a peasant in the wilds of Kerry or Galway should have three times the voting power of a resident in Islington or Fulham. And it is not only ridiculous from the point of view of logic that Ireland should be over-represented and London under-represented: it is politically inexpedient, because the Irish peasant who has thrice the power is about a third as intelligent and industrious as the citizen of the metropolis. But there are many things in this world logically anomalous and morally imperfect which it is just as well to let alone. We hold that parliamentary reform should never be undertaken by any Government except in response to an effectual popular demand. There is no real demand for this redistribution of seats from any quarter that we know of. Sir Henry Kimber has written a great many letters to the "Times" on the subject, and made a certain number of speeches, and obtained some tables of statistics. But "no one marks him"; and though he is a worthy metropolitan member, with an overgrown constituency of his own, he can hardly be called a strong popular cry. With all deference to Sir Henry Kimber, he is not the "causa causans" of Mr. Gerald Balfour's resolutions; and as there has been no demand for them either in the press, two or three papers excepted, or on the platform we must suppose that the Cabinet think them good electioneering business. But are Ministers right in thinking so? In our opinion they are wrong, because we cannot see whom the Government is going to gain by its plan of redistribution. The hostility of the voters in the constituencies from whom a member is taken away is of course assured. And it is not by giving five new members to London, and four to Glasgow, and three to Manchester, and one to Leeds, Bradford, and Birmingham, that the Government is going to stem the tide of its unpopularity in North Britain and the great cities of England. As for the English counties, they are practically as they were: it is a mere shuffling of the cards; eight seats are subtracted here, and six added there. There remains the case of Ireland. It is the fashion nowadays to sneer at the Irish vote, or even to call it an unclean thing. We do not: provided there is no tampering with the Union, we hold an Irish vote as good as though not better than a Scotch or English vote. This Redistribution Bill—if it ever gets to that—will throw the Irish solid into the arms of the Radical party. Just at a time when the Land Act and the Education Act had accustomed the Irishmen to act with the Conservatives, and to forget Home Rule for the hour, Mr. Gerald Balfour appears with his pitchfork of parliamentary reform, and drives them back into the opposite camp. If this consummation is devoutly wished for by some Tories, then why not go the whole hog and take thirty instead of twenty seats from Ireland? That would have been arithmetically just, and would at the same time have really weakened the power of the Nationalists in the House of Commons. The subtraction of twenty seats will still leave Ireland over-represented, and it will cost Mr. Balfour as much odium as the subtraction of thirty seats. We object to the redistribution scheme because it is being thrust down the throat of the electorate without being asked for, and



because it will make the Government more enemies than friends.

We have a further and deeper objection to the principle on which it is based. The basis of electoral power ought to be, not population, but electors. It is not numbers, but the capacity of its adult males to get on the register that should entitle an urban or rural community to the privilege of choosing a representative. If we have to draw a disfranchising line, we should draw it at 5,000 electors, and say that any constituency with less than that number of voters is not important enough to return a member to Parliament. This would disfranchise boroughs like Winchester, Taunton, Stafford, and Canterbury, and a crowd of Irish boroughs. Not that we dislike small boroughs; it is boroughs like Calne, Tamworth, and Newark, long since destroyed, that have returned some of our greatest statesmen to Parliament. But you must have some basic principle of enfranchisement; and we maintain that electors, not population, should be that basis. Disraeli long ago opposed equal electoral districts on the ground that equality destroyed variety, and that the social life of England was various. But every redistribution of seats effected is a step in the direction of equal electoral districts. There is apparently no escape from it; we only claim that the equality should not be of noses but of political capacity, in other words, of electors. The transfer of power on this occasion is roughly speaking from half a dozen English boroughs, and nineteen Irish counties and three Irish boroughs, to London and its suburbs, to Glasgow, and to Manchester. This shifting of representation is undoubtedly from stationary to progressive communities. The process however might have been carried further on our electoral basis, by disfranchising a larger number of small boroughs, and either reducing the total of the House of Commons—a great advantage—or giving London the larger share of representation to which it is entitled. As it is, the Metropolis proper gains five members, in Battersea, Wandsworth, Hackney, Islington and Fulham; while six new suburban constituencies are created, namely, East Ham, Leyton, Walthamstow, Hornsey, Tottenham, and Willesden. We cannot avoid expressing the hope that the metropolis and its suburbs will take the opportunity thus afforded of returning a member of some kind of distinction to the new House of Commons, for it has to be said that the London representatives as a body are painfully lacking in ability or reputation. But this is rather counting one's chickens before they are hatched. Even if Mr. Gerald Balfour's resolutions be carried this session, it by no means follows that the Redistribution Bill of 1906 will become law. The Redistribution Bill will be fought line by line by the Irish: it cannot therefore receive the Royal Assent before the end of the session of 1906. Between to-day and that date a great many things may happen.

#### ENGLAND AND THE MOORISH CONFERENCE.

"**A**LLER à la conférence c'est une faute, et quelle faute!" is, according to the "Gaulois", M. Delcassé's commentary on his successor's policy, and this appears to be the view of the Chamber though discretion hardly allows opinion an open expression. But we are glad that Lord Lansdowne has frankly adopted the line laid down by France and agreed to take part in the conference. The original refusal was based no doubt upon the anticipation of a firm stand by France and was intended to be of some assistance to her; but as she has chosen to take the line of least resistance we lose little by acquiescing. In fact we benefit by so doing, for the open door for all time suits us better than for a limited period. Practically, therefore, we stand to gain rather than lose by international control being substituted in Morocco for that of a single Power. Nor can it be argued that we have not scrupulously fulfilled our part of the bargain with France. We have gone to the extreme limits of diplomatic support, and it is difficult to see how we could have refused material assistance

if the dispute had come to blows. Fortunately for everyone, this contingency has not arisen, but there is surely something almost pitiful in the ungainly attempts made by a portion of our press to represent that Germany by the character of the French acceptance has suffered a diplomatic defeat. This is not the French view, for, as the "Gaulois" truly remarks, M. Rouvier has not saved the face of France by the fact that Germany recognises the "special interest" created for France in Morocco by its contiguity to Algeria. No Power has ever disputed that "interest" which arises from geographical conditions, and no one has ever been so foolish as to attempt to limit the right of another state to defend its own frontier. Germany only admits what was never disputed, and, as M. Denys Cochin and the rest of Frenchmen, Republicans as well as Nationalists, recognise, this is no real concession by Germany. The true state of the case is succinctly and mournfully admitted by the "Temps" when it states that there were two ways of settling the Moorish question, by a tête-à-tête with the Sultan and by a general discussion, in other words a conference. France was unable to insist on the first alternative, and has had to accept the second. When we have a sensible French newspaper, which strongly supports the Government, so clearly admitting facts, it is really superfluous fatuity for English journals to tell their readers that Germany has failed.

Frenchmen, it is clear, are beginning to think that a great blunder was committed in the abandonment of M. Delcassé at the dictation of another Power; because, disguise it as we may, that is the real humiliation that France has endured. Making jettison of the policy is only the necessary corollary to the fall of its originator. Whether M. Delcassé was altogether wise to allow himself to be interviewed with such particularity as to the objects he had in view may be doubted; but had the French policy in Morocco succeeded, he might well have boasted that, while he had used England to isolate Germany, he had induced us to give France an immense increase in Mediterranean power. But the disappearance of the protagonist makes the Brest fêtes to every observant eye a pageant somewhat shorn of its glory. Is it not indeed almost a *festin de pierre* with the commandatore knocking at the door? For there is no getting over the fact that hitherto England has reaped the benefits of the agreement and it is no consolation to France to feel that it is due to her own laches that she is not now in effective occupation of Morocco. However, we have had the opportunity of demonstrating our complete loyalty to the arrangement and nobody in France believes the ridiculous fiction that we wanted to push her into a German war for our benefit. England may claim then that she has so much to the good on her side before the conference opens. Yet we cannot say that we look with much confidence to the outcome of that meeting. It had no doubt become the only way out of this impasse, but with the examples of similar discussions on Oriental affairs before our eyes we have little confidence in the united wisdom of Europe as a vehicle of rapid or effective reform. The examples of Crete and Macedonia have not yet passed into the region of history. With those countries we have only a sentimental concern but it is not so with Morocco. In that country, if France has the greater political interest, England has the overwhelming interest in matters of trade. According to the latest statistics our percentage of the whole Moorish trade is 51·61 per cent. while France enjoys less than 20 and Germany less than 11 per cent. It is then of urgent importance to us that some sort of security for life and property under adequate guarantees should be established. For this we looked to France and might have anticipated that in securing this we obtained some compensation for the loss of our predominant position at the Sultan's Court. French writers who grumble at the Anglo-French Agreement forget that England abandoned this position at Fez in favour of a Power both hated and feared by the Moors while the more intelligent class who have learned something of the success of our Egyptian policy would have welcomed reforms instituted under our guidance without the

suspensions which attached to French action. Nobody, either among Frenchmen or Moors, doubted that in the end France intended to make of Morocco another Tunis. At present the only result of our withdrawal has been completely to eliminate us from the Sultan's councils, so that we read in the Franco-German declaration that France and Germany will "give to the Sultan of Morocco advice through their representatives in common agreement with a view to fixing the programme which he will propose to the conference". England thus has entirely lost the predominance she had enjoyed in Morocco ever since the days of Palmerston. As the result of the conference we may expect to see Germany rather than France occupy this place, or more probably we shall find another dissolving-view of shifting influence and rival intrigues of which we have the standing example in Constantinople. England, therefore, up to the present has gained more than France from the agreement, but recent events have more than confirmed the dislike of this Review to the bargaining away of our position in the Moorish Empire.

But, whatever objections may have been entertained in this country to the original bargain, England cannot afford to abandon the beau rôle she has sustained up to the present. She must continue her support of France during the conference as hitherto, but we may be allowed to hope that the Government will go into it with some clear idea of the policy to be pursued and as to the exact limits of resistance which it is to observe towards the proposals of other parties. We cannot make too plain our own conviction that by accepting a conference France has opened up a line of policy which may lead to a very different situation from that created by her agreements with the other Mediterranean Powers. It must be remembered that by Article 17 of the original Madrid Conference of 1880 a right to the most-favoured-nation treatment was recognised by Morocco as appertaining to all the states taking part in it. This alone was quite enough to give any of the signatories a claim to interfere whenever it saw or imagined any infringement of its guaranteed rights and was quite sufficient diplomatic excuse for German protests. It is not improbable that Spain may prove at the conference less acquiescent than hitherto. We rendered no small service to France in helping to secure Spanish assent to the arrangement. It must be remembered that the tonnage of Spanish ships entering the port of Tangier exceeded that of any other nation and the action of their Government was never popular with the vast majority of Spaniards, but when they found that England would not support them against France, they reluctantly accepted the situation, having indeed no option at the time. The enthusiastic welcome afforded to the Emperor William by the Spanish residents in Tangier is, however, quite evidence enough to convince the world of the real sentiments of that country. We have only space to indicate this one difficulty out of many which may arise. We must suppose that all the thirteen states that took part in the conference of 1880 will be summoned to that now resolved upon, and doubtless each of the protagonists will have its followers. The prospect of an amicable settlement equally pleasing to France, Germany and Great Britain is small. We can administer no consolation either to France or to ourselves save the time-worn tag "Tu l'as voulu, Georges Dandin". Our own rôle is laid down beyond dispute—to support France loyally so far as her capacity and determination to establish order in Morocco are assured; none the less it is high time that France made clear to the world that the task she has claimed to assume is not beyond her strength.

#### THE CONDITION OF RUSSIA.

FROM the Western standpoint Russia's internal situation might appear well nigh hopeless. But serious enough in its realities as is the present aspect of her home affairs, the careful observer will allow each fresh outburst of the revolutionary volcano to subside before passing judgment. In the general excitement prevailing during the "Kniaz Potemkin" episode, for instance, we were assured that "the Black Sea fleet

has virtually ceased to exist, and that discontent is rife throughout the Russian navy". The tragi-comic ending of the mutiny has certainly shown up the miserable stuff of which "these loyal supporters of a righteous cause" were made. We can only reiterate our opinion expressed last week that the nondescript crew of the "Kniaz Potemkin" represented merely the lower stratum of the Black Sea population. These men had been hastily enrolled to fill up the gaps in the fleet through the drainage of the able seamen dispatched to man Rojdestvensky's squadrons. It now appears moreover that this crew consisted chiefly of a foreign element—Bessarabian-Roumanians. None of the officers joined the mutineers: one and all they preferred death or chains. The patriotism of the pirate crew expressed itself mainly in the appropriation of the booty promised them by the ringleaders, and as soon as the thousands of roubles of the ship's treasury were exhausted the Dutch courage of the rebels gave way. As to the naval mutiny reported at Cronstadt, it has proved to be a strike of ships' labourers drafted from the local loafers, who demanded increase of pay. The fact that the sailors are at present guarding the gin-shops in that port affords fairly conclusive evidence that they are not only holding aloof from the strikers, but that their loyalty is vodka proof—a high standard of self-sacrifice on the part of a Russian. Thus the strongholds of the navy like those of the army continue steadfast in their resistance to the incessant siege of the revolutionary anarchist. Throughout its whole movement during the last few months the revolutionary party has revealed a rare degree of cunning and adroitness—a peculiarly un-Russian activity in its organising tactics—all of which betokens a large foreign element and encouragement. Particularly astute has been the plan of action of the past fortnight. Odessa and Cronstadt are the two outlying, widely separated naval bases, whilst Lodz is the commercial centre of European Russia. The revolutionaries have perceived that in these three points of vantage they had at last the possibilities of connecting links for a gigantic conspiracy involving the upheaval of the whole country between the Black Sea and the Baltic. It is the notion here generally that the continuation of outrage and atrocities in all directions culminating, for example, in the assassination of a leading personage such as Count Shouvalov is a sure sign that matters are drifting from bad to worse, and that there is no escape from a general revolution. We would however point out that Count Shouvalov came of an extremely popular and respected family of high rank. His appointment to his onerous position at Moscow was of so recent a date that he had at the time had no opportunity of exhibiting either good or bad qualities as an administrator. His murder therefore can in no wise be considered as a political vengeance on a tyrannical official. As a whole the revolutionary operations have hardly been crowned with the success predicted. The only substantial result which they have so far reaped by their spasmodic acts of murder and insubordination has been the retarding of the cause of that real progress towards reform which has had to rest in abeyance. To those who have a clear insight into the current of events, the most momentous, indeed the crucial, phase in Russia's internal conditions remains as heretofore concentrated, not in the wild lawless acts of infuriated strikers and assassins goaded on by anarchists, but rather in the calm attitude of the intelligent leaders of reform, who from the outset have desired for their country a universal regeneration on peaceful legitimate principles. The nervous, almost feverish energy employed by the extreme party of the revolutionaries of late may perhaps be taken as an actual indication that the passive section of reformers is steadily gaining ground in the councils of the Tsar. The fishers in troubled waters are in fact redoubling their efforts to bring about a crisis before the Tsar irrevocably summons the consultative and representative assembly of the nation, amongst whom the revolutionaries are well aware that they will find few sympathisers.

The delay in promulgating the scheme of reforms, now known as the Bouleiguin programme, is naturally to be regretted, and has given rise to considerable



doubt and suspicion. At the same time, it should be remembered that under the present régime of government delay is to a certain extent absolutely unavoidable. To call suddenly into being a new estate, as it were, in the governing body, and to remove the complex obstructive machinery of the bureaucracy would be a delicate task for any country, but especially for Russia during her present period of trial and defeat. Nor is it likely that the most powerful bureaucracy in the world will yield to its doom without an obstinate struggle for mastery. Weighing all these conflicting elements in the balance we find no reason to apprehend the non-fulfilment of the Tsar's promises to the various deputations to whom audience has been granted. If read in the light of the English version to hand, together with the comments of our daily press, the interpretation of His Majesty's speech to the reform section headed by Count Bobrinsky is certainly misleading. Various assertions to the contrary do not affect our acceptance of the sentiments uttered by Nicholas II. on this occasion as a distinct declaration of his purpose to uphold the rights and prerogatives of autocracy with the conviction that herein lies the only course for the true development of Russia's national greatness. With this significance alone we read the words: "I am especially happy to see that you are guided by devotion to the old traditions of our country. . . . A State cannot be strong and solid unless it religiously preserves its old traditions." In the uncertainty of delay the numerous political leaders at present active naturally seize every one of them the opportunity to proffer some special methods of reform, all avowedly in the interests of the people. To the onlooker all this but adds to the paramount confusion apparently existing amongst the Tsar's advisers. The appointment of M. Shipov (who in our parliamentary terms might be classed as a Liberal-Unionist) to the post of Minister of the Interior suggests a very important conclusion on the part of the Tsar. By this selection he is doubtless hoping to weld as much as possible into one the leading sections of reform now running neck and neck in the race for supremacy. M. Shipov in his impressive speech at the memorable meeting of the Zemstvo delegates held in Moscow in May once and for all established his political position as that of a reformer with monarchical principles. His conditions of acceptance of the ministry just offered him are a sufficient guarantee that the people's particular rights and prerogatives as supported by his associates shall be equally established and maintained with the rights and prerogatives of autocracy. M. Shipov's insistence upon the emancipation of the press from the fetters of the censor is a forecast of the policy which will ensure the freedom of speech without which it is obvious that no representative assembly can exist de facto, or be of any vital assistance to the Tsar himself. But with all the muzzling of the press so freely debated here, it is patent that the Russian papers already have the right to discuss in an extremely outspoken manner the calamities brought about by an incompetent bureaucracy. Not a word, on the other hand, is hinted with regard to the position or the actions of the Tsar, even by the organs of advanced liberalism such as the "Rousskiya Vyedomosti". It now seems probable that the Emperor's final decision upon the Bouluiguin scheme of reform will coincide with the date for the commencement of the Peace Commission deliberations. Hence there is still a hope that the question of terms of peace may eventually be settled by the voice of the people. Moreover, if it be authentic that M. Witte has been appointed one of the Russian commissioners in the forthcoming negotiations with Japan, no one has a better knowledge than he of Russian resources, nor has any of the Tsar's advisers the real interests of his country more keenly at heart.

#### THE VOLUNTEER PROBLEM.

FOR many years there has been much talk about the standard of efficiency that may rightly be required of the Volunteers—in fact ever since 1859, when, nearly all our regular troops being still in India

and the French menacing us at home, the Volunteer movement was resuscitated in its modern form. But we are no nearer a solution now than at any time during the subsequent forty-six years. The question is, and always must be, one of extreme difficulty. If monetary grants are made to the force from the public funds, it is certain that the House of Commons and the unthinking majority of the public will demand a corresponding reduction in the regular army. Unhappily this has throughout invariably been the case. But there is a worse dilemma. If the Volunteers are to be really efficient, their numbers must be small, whilst if the numbers are good, the efficiency must be bad. Consequently the problem is almost insoluble. Throughout the modern history of the Volunteers, and especially in the early 'sixties, attempts have been made to organise them as a body independent of the military authorities. Yet subjection to the War Office is an obvious necessity since the weakest point of the whole force is the absence of discipline and effective control. War Office control is weak enough; but it would be weaker still if the force were not under the War Department. Proficiency in shooting, even if that general ideal were reached, is not enough; and in this respect the public are much at sea. They read of the Bisley meeting now going on—which to all intents and purposes is a Volunteer carnival—and therefore they think that all Volunteers must be good shots. Yet it is only a small proportion of the force which takes part in this pageant, at any rate in an effective form; and in every crew or unit throughout the country there are many "passengers".

What ought a Volunteer to be, and what is he? The recent debate in the House of Lords does not help us much. Lord Roberts carried the subject further than the contentions of the "blue water" school and its opponents have carried it; and in doing this he was undoubtedly right. But the chief interest in the debate was the evidence that the Government has moderated its blue-water enthusiasm; and that the theories expounded by Mr. Balfour and Mr. Arnold-Forster have to a large extent been abandoned by Lord Lansdowne. Primarily of course the Volunteers are a home defence force, or they are nothing. But as at present constituted they cannot, as the Norfolk Commission urged, be entrusted with the duty of defending the country. If this country is ever invaded, it will be by picked troops; and unless the Volunteers are in largely preponderating force, they will effect little. It is true that when a great war unhappily occurs, some of those who are willing will no doubt be utilised in the field abroad. Their services in South Africa were valuable as far as they went. But only about 20,000 out of some 300,000 actually went to the seat of war. This is not generally realised, because the public and press absurdly exaggerate what the Volunteers did. On the whole they really did little. They were not subjected to the inconvenience of a general embodiment, mainly for home service, like the militia; and no unit, except a composite one like the City Imperial Volunteers, went out intact, whilst even these were sent home at a critical period when men were urgently needed. The Volunteers are in truth a quite anomalous body, and as at present constituted it is almost impossible to make them efficient, or allot them a definite place in our defence schemes. Yet the nation regards them as the alternative to conscription. This is really the crux of the problem. It is only by means of conscription that we can end the anomalies of our military position; though we are of course aware that conscription will not of itself provide the necessary Indian and colonial garrisons; and the system, if ever inaugurated, must be a much more complicated one than those in vogue in Continental States. None the less almost everyone who is competent to judge realises that conscription is the only final solution, and that to rely on volunteering is an unreal evasion. Lord Roberts, in the House of Lords, had a great opportunity, which he did not take. Had he openly advocated conscription, and put the plain issue before the nation, he would indeed have deserved well of his countrymen for all time. It is true that he hinted at this dreaded alternative. But that was not enough,

and another great opportunity has once again been lost.

We have been able to support Mr. Arnold-Forster in his policy for the auxiliaries; his idea of finding out what the Volunteers were really worth was undoubtedly sound. Few War Secretaries before him have had the courage to tackle this thorny question, because, from the political standpoint, the Volunteers are a formidable force to reckon with, as was shown by the debate in the House of Commons. His predecessors have generally contented themselves with patting them on the back; but Mr. Arnold-Forster has boldly faced the problem, and so brought conscription a step nearer, although he deprecates that end. Yet unfortunately as usual he was badly advised as to the method to be employed. Had the Army Council, three months ago, sent out a confidential circular letter to general officers, requesting them to obtain the necessary information, before the Volunteer trainings had commenced, the whole thing could have been easily done. The Volunteers would simply have practised a "test mobilisation". All would then have been examined without the present outcry; and Mr. Arnold-Forster would have been able to take necessary action without being hampered by the present demonstration. Now the order has come too late. Many units have already performed their annual trainings; and the details cannot be obtained for a very long time. The wisecracks at the War Office did not apparently understand that scattered, or indeed any other, corps could not obtain the information at once. So now Mr. Arnold-Forster is compelled to admit that he cannot obtain the returns till October. For the neglect of such details a Secretary of State can hardly be blamed personally, though his advisers may be, as possibly also for the unfortunate wording of the circular letter. We are at one with Mr. Arnold-Forster in holding that an efficient force is better than a large one. But the test he has imposed is too high, and likely to discourage, if not destroy, what little we have. With capable and strong advisers to keep him in the right path, he might have done well on the auxiliary side. It is therefore the more hard that he should be attacked, and possibly have been "let in", on the one sound item of his policy.

#### THE TARIFF REFORM MUSTER.

ANNUAL meetings are not intended or expected to be fruitful in ideas: they seldom either modify or develop the policy whose progress or at any rate whose age they are summoned to mark. They are useful as affording evidence of existence, for that which is not in evidence is very liable to be disregarded as defunct. In this way the annual meeting of the Tariff Reform League last Friday was opportune, for circumstances have for some time tended to keep the fiscal question in the background; so much so that, as Mr. Chamberlain pointed out, many of the free traders seem to think that there is nothing left for them to do but passively to watch the movement's decease. Mr. Asquith, remembering his classics, might say that the fiscal reform movement was nothing from the beginning, and soon will not even be that. Tariff reformers will certainly not object to their opponents going to sleep on these comfortable assurances, and, if opponents alone had to be considered, tariff reformers might be well content to remain in unchallenged obscurity for some time yet. But it is bad for the rank and file of their own people; political rank and file cannot be kept in fighting trim without a good deal in the way of excursion and alarum. Mr. Chamberlain knows this as well as any man, and took the occasion of his speech in the Albert Hall on Friday in last week at its right measure. He made no attempt to throw any new light on the policy or even to re-state it in new terms, contenting himself with a review of the campaign and its objects, which effectively brought home to his hearers that they were very much alive, that there had been no retreat, strategic or otherwise, and that none was contemplated. The time for a forward movement all along the line would come; in the meantime tariff reformers must stand together and hold themselves ready.

We were very glad that Mr. Chamberlain made it perfectly plain that there would be no fining down and no whittling away of the policy. Mr. Chamberlain himself is not at all the man to feel any temptation in this direction; compromise is not his atmosphere: but circumstances have of course been very exigent and a peculiarly delicate political situation might have led Mr. Chamberlain, from motives in themselves most commendable, to yield to a compromise his judgment could not approve.

Were there any acute difference between Mr. Balfour and himself, did the existence of the present Government depend on their agreement, and were that agreement unattainable while Mr. Chamberlain adhered to all the items of his tariff policy, we fully admit that Unionist agreement might be the end which the supreme good of the country required of Unionists even at very great sacrifices. But, even if matters had come to such a pass, we should still say that no modification of the tariff ought to be accepted; it would be better to drop it altogether and wait for a moment more favourable to its development. A good policy may yet be an impossible one for a particular moment; and it may be the part of a wise man perfectly loyal to the policy to relinquish it for the time being. That does not prejudice his action in the future, neither does it prejudice the policy. But to abandon a part of the plan, to try to put into operation a portion of what was thought out as a complete whole, and intended to work as a scheme entire, must in our view be harmful to the policy, and may be its ruin. We are not of course referring to small points, accidents which in every scheme may be varied without grave results in any direction, but of points which the authors of the policy conceived to be essential. If any such points are abandoned, the policy, launched in a maimed condition, can work only haltingly; not producing the results expected, it is received with disappointment, and ultimately it is pronounced a failure. Thereupon to attempt to rectify matters by restoring the abandoned portion or portions of the scheme is almost a forlorn hope. It looks like a patching up a failure, and no one has enthusiasm for trying on an extended scale an experiment which did not succeed on a small one. That is why we have never been able to take much interest in the proposal to put into practice a policy of retaliation without a preference tariff within the empire. Similarly we have never favoured any suggestion to drop or reduce to insignificance the duty on foreign corn which the preference policy required. We are perfectly aware that for propagandist and electioneering purposes this tax on corn is the great stumbling block in the way of tariff reformers' success. It was evident at once that this must be so. Put any tax, no matter how small, on corn and you give your opponent the excuse to declare that you want to raise prices to such a height that the people will starve; and this opportunity free traders have not been slow to take. But it is no use to smooth the path for a policy by bodily taking that policy out of the way. Give up the tax on corn and our greatest electioneering difficulty is gone, but unfortunately the policy goes with it. The greatest, the real, object of the whole fiscal reform movement is to facilitate the consolidation of the British communities throughout the world into one empire. We believe the most practicable starting-point is a mutual trade policy, by which the different parts of the empire will give one another a preference over all foreign countries. Plainly it must be a preference of which all will share the advantage: but if imported foreign corn is not to be taxed, what practical advantage can Canada get out of the new policy? If no preference duty is to be allowed against any imports of foreign food, the colonies are virtually knocked out of the scheme. We should be asking them to give us advantages over foreign competitors while we gave none to them. To give them a preference only on things they do not export would be worse than futile; it would almost be insulting. Mr. Chamberlain's speech, we hope and believe, will make it finally plain to all who are now outside the movement that, if they want to come in, they must take the tax on corn with the rest. We shall gain nothing by blinking our difficulties. The wire-puller must not be allowed to delude us into



sacrificing the ultimate object of the policy for the sake of a temporary electioneering advantage. Candidates might also consider that if they declare themselves in favour of tariff reform on any lines, they will invariably be taken to support a tax on corn, no matter how stoutly they may deny it. It is useless for them to disavow the tax, for no one will believe them. By compromising on tariff questions, they forego all the whole-hogger's advantages, his intelligible position, its simplicity and straightness, while they pay the penalty of his views entire almost to the full.

### THE CITY.

THE experience in the Stock Exchange during the past few days has again demonstrated the fact that the South African mining market virtually dominates the rest of the House with the exception of the American railroad section. Cheap money, a much clearer political horizon in so far as Franco-German affairs are concerned, and the encouraging preliminary steps which will it is hoped result in peace, formed a combination which might well have led to a general revival throughout the Exchange. But the course of quotations in the South African market told the tale of trouble existing somewhere and the "bears" followed up their attack of the past few weeks by a "drive" on Saturday which accentuated the extent of misfortune which undoubtedly obtained. The general markets were apparently quite unable to shake off the dead weight until it became known that the carry-over arrangements had been completed without the disclosure of any specially weak spot; a number of accounts had been closed, in one instance a considerable account which was pressing on the market had been taken over by strong hands, and the general situation had been further improved by the weeding-out of a number of weak speculators to whom contango facilities were denied. The markets throughout the House at once responded to the improved conditions and South African stocks have shown substantial improvement from the lowest prices of last week. The problem is, however, to keep the market steady as there is no sign that the British public are buying and with the "bear" position reduced it is quite likely that prices may go back—it is known that the big houses have taken enormous lines of stock and they cannot continue doing so indefinitely. In the meantime we must be thankful that the market has weathered another, and one hopes final, period of stress which has been so conspicuous during the half-year just concluded. The output of gold from the Transvaal for the month of June amounted to 412,317 ounces valued at £1,751,412 and after due allowance for the month of thirty days the result is extremely satisfactory. There is evidence of a reduction of working costs in many of the mines, although owing to provisions for reserve and various extraordinary expenses the net result is not relatively so good. But it is desirable that investors in the outside propositions of the Witwatersrand should not be unduly influenced by the results attained by the working mines; and arguments based upon the yield of capital invested in the dividend-paying mines are likely to be quite fallacious in the long run when applied to companies which have proved the reef but are still far removed from the producing stage. Our remarks do not apply to the punter in the class of shares to which we allude as he enters the market with his eyes open, but the person who buys as an investment which he is prepared to lock up—if necessary for a year or two—should remember that the gold is undoubtedly lying waiting for extraction, and that every month almost new methods of economy are devised which will be to the eventual benefit of the mines which cannot enter the producing stage at present. A further potent factor is the undeniable improvement in the general commercial and economic conditions of the Transvaal—the progress is slow but is taking place as shown by the Budget proposals for 1905-6, which have just been laid before the Legislative Council. We are not despondent of the ultimate recovery of the market if the finance houses would but adopt a common policy to restore the confidence of the public and were not influenced so much

by the prospect of a quick profit from "jobbing" in their own stocks.

The success of the Japanese loan was quite assured before the issue, but the fact that the rush of applicants was not so heavy as on former occasions, assisted by a considerable volume of selling from Germany, kept the premium in the neighbourhood of  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. until Thursday when it became known that the portion of the loan offered in London had been covered about ten times over and that a similar success had attended the issue abroad. The following are the Japanese war loans which have been issued in this country with the issue price, present price and yield per cent.—as we pointed out in our last issue the present loan, although a second charge on the tobacco monopoly, is thoroughly well secured and at the price constitutes an admirable investment:

Amount of loan	Rate per cent.	Redeemable	Issue price	Present price as fully paid	Yield per cent. about
£10,000,000	6	1911	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	104	£5 15 0
12,000,000	6	1911	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	102 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 16 0
30,000,000	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1925	90	93	4 17 0
30,000,000	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1925	90	91	4 19 0

The repetition of the success of Japan in the loan market brings into strong contrast the state of affairs in Russia, where it is currently reported the bankers have advised the Government that it is impossible to proceed with the proposed new internal loan of £15,000,000. For some considerable time past strenuous efforts have been made by Russian agents to promote a loan in Europe but without success—London among other centres has been tried—and with her own bankers unable or unwilling to assist the outlook is bad indeed.

The Bank of England announce a further issue of £1,500,000 East India Railway 3 per cent. new Debenture Stock, the principal and interest of which are guaranteed by the Government. The price of issue is £92 per cent.

Home railway stocks have generally been very lifeless, the traffic returns having been disappointing in the majority of cases. The rumour that the Cunard line proposes to make Dover a port of call however created a considerable demand for South-Eastern and Chatham stocks which closed strong at advances of from  $\frac{1}{4}$  to a full point improvement.

The discreditable disclosures in connexion with the official report on the cotton crops issued by the Agricultural Department at Washington and the state of the Equitable Assurance Society's affairs which appear in a more unfavourable light as the investigation proceeds, have not unnaturally suggested that the figures of the wheat crop reports upon which so much depends may not be reliable. There has been considerable hesitation in prices throughout the week, although Steel stocks have been a particularly good market. Whilst the 7 per cent. preferred stock is in our opinion a good investment we should be disposed to sell the common stock at anything between \$35 and \$40 as it is difficult to see how the price is warranted even on the basis of the glowing figures which are estimated as the present earnings of the Corporation. South American railroad traffic returns are again excellent and prices have risen all round, more especially in Buenos Ayres Great Southern to which we have referred from time to time as a good investment on a 5 per cent. basis.

The considerable selling of the shares of electric companies appears to have been the outcome of apprehension as to the effect of the Power Bill now before the House of Commons. We cannot share this nervousness. It is not intended as far as we are aware that the power company should encroach on the lighting business. Electric lighting shares should certainly not be sold on any bogey that the power company will compete other than in the department of power for which the company is intended.

### INSURANCE.

UNIVERSITY.—NATIONAL MUTUAL OF AUSTRALASIA.

THE University Life Assurance Society is one of those small companies which confine their attention solely to the business of Life assurance, and work wholly in the interests of existing policy-holders. It

makes no attempt to issue a large amount of new assurances, although probably it would be glad to do a larger new business than it does. The fact is, these small good companies are seriously handicapped. Bigness is fashionable in the business world to-day and perhaps people cannot be blamed for going to much-advertised second-rate companies, instead of to first-class offices of which they have never heard. It does not matter much to the policy-holders of the good companies, but the extension of the inferior which is promoted by the spending of much money is to be regretted.

The liabilities of the University have been valued by the new British Offices' Mortality Table, excluding from observation the first five years of assurance, with interest at  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. This basis necessitates reserves which not only provide the most complete security but large sources of surplus as well. It cannot be too often repeated that in Life assurance good security and good profits are inevitably associated: in other financial transactions good security means small returns and large profits mean large risks. The University earns about £3 16s. per cent. upon its funds, so providing a balance of more than  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum for bonus purposes. The expenditure of the company is below the average of British offices, and the mortality experience last year was very favourable. The claims expected and provided for were forty-three, assuring £95,000; the actual deaths numbered twenty-six, and the amount of the claims was £61,000.

The surplus for the five years was £137,303, of which £115,002 was distributed. The policy-holders received 90 per cent. and the shareholders 10 per cent. The rate of bonus on Whole Life policies was a reversionary addition of £2 5s. per annum for each £100 assured and £2 per annum on Endowment assurance policies. Policies effected on the Discounted Bonus plan, under which the present value of future bonuses is allowed as a reduction in the premiums from the outset, received bonus additions of 5s. and 10s. respectively on Whole Life and Endowment policies. The results to the policy-holders remain excellent, and the prospects for the future are extremely good.

Another valuation report reaches us from an office of a quite different character. The National Mutual of Australasia is a colonial office having its head offices in Melbourne. It is managed with the greatest energy and capacity, its growth has been remarkably rapid and the results, especially under certain classes of policies, are as good as, to say the least, those that can be obtained from any Life assurance company in the world.

Its liabilities are valued on a  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. basis, but as it is in the fortunate position of being able to earn interest at the rate of more than  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum, and this accompanied by complete security, the surplus from this source is very substantial. Its mortality experience is also favourable, the claims being only about 75 per cent. of the amount expected and provided for. A cursory examination of its accounts might suggest that the expenses of management were high, but, as we have frequently explained, the true expenditure of a progressive Life office cannot be properly judged unless the amount of new business transacted be taken into account. When this is done the expenses of the Association amount to about 90 per cent. of new premiums and 9 per cent. of renewal premiums, a ratio which is slightly in excess of the average expenditure of British offices. If the dividends to shareholders were considered an expense, as perhaps they should be, the expenditure of the National Mutual of Australasia would not be higher than the average. The new business of the Association is rapidly increasing and amounts to a very large sum annually and when this fact is allowed for the real expenditure of the Company shows a substantial decrease when compared with recent years.

The Association has recently erected new offices in London and the quality of its policies, the character of its management and the facts revealed in its valuation returns suggest that it should and that it will require its larger premises for transacting the increased new business which, if folk are wise, will come to it from the United Kingdom.

#### EXCUSES.

A PROVINCIAL English proverb in a spirit of easy-going tolerance expresses the opinion that "A poor excuse is better than none". It seems to suggest that one should shut one's eyes in a spirit of charity, and avoid noticing too closely the floundering of our friends and acquaintances when they have plunged themselves in difficulties of one sort or another and it is necessary for them to find a way of escape with what credit may be possible. The French proverb "Qui s'excuse, s'accuse" is dreadfully shrewd and penetrating and seems unwilling to make any concessions to the frailties of human nature. It seems to say, we clever Frenchmen are not going to allow ourselves to be hoodwinked and made parties to a sort of lie which has the quality of half deceiving the author of it, but whose hollowness we can see at a glance. One might suppose from a comparison of the two proverbs that Englishmen are more kindly than Frenchmen, but it would be an inference on too slight grounds. The French have many gracious proverbs. Nothing could be tenderer than "Faute avouée: faute pardonnée" or more humane than "Savoir tout; c'est pardonner tout". But there is a world of difference between the obscurity and cloudy atmosphere which excuses are intended to create, in order that all the sharp outlines of a mistake, or an act of misconduct, or a neglect of duty, may be obliterated, and the complete knowledge demanded prior to pardon. It really seems as if these proverbs with their contrasted way of dealing with excuses are an illustration of the different national characteristics of the Englishman and the Frenchman. The Frenchman in his insistence on the frank confession, the full statement of the facts before pardon, is the natural logician; he must be sure of his premises and will not shrink from the inferences; the Englishman exhibits himself in the light of the person to whom compromise is natural and who does not dislike leaving things more or less open.

For an excuse to be good it must be capable of satisfying the conscience of the party putting it forward, as well as of confusing to some extent the intellect of the person to be propitiated. But there need not be two parties. More frequently there is only one, the excuser himself, though he bifurcates as it were into a duality of persons, one of whom proffers the excuse and the other hears and determines. The partiality of the court has become notorious, and it is always an open question whether the advocate or the judge is more venal. This is the court of conscience where reasons are found for our doing or not doing what we should condemn others for being in any doubt about. There we explain the circumstances which make our position peculiar to ourselves, and introduce lawful exceptions in our favour in the code of ordinary morality. We explain here why we gave way to sudden temptation which resulted in our doing something generally disapproved, and which may range from serious offences to the most petty of meannesses. It is remarkable with what ease the court accepts this kind of special pleading. The affairs of daily life in which it comes into operation are too numerous and too trivial to detail; but if we take some of the more serious breaches of law or morals, and consider the excuses offered for them, we are almost driven to the conclusion that no one ever looks on himself as having acted without substantial justification. It is a curious phenomenon of the law courts that criminals seem to regard themselves as having some kind of defence which is not capable of being put into legal form, but which at the back of their minds appears in the form of an obstinate prepossession that they are in fact innocent. There is no understanding their attitude otherwise. When it comes to a civil matter we most of us can understand this better. We could resist a claim for a debt for instance which we might admit was really due. But there is some element in the case arising from our relations to the adversary, or in his motives or conduct, which would make us plume ourselves immensely on circumventing his quite legal demands. There is probably no class of person, however disreputable, his profession or occupation may appear to others, who does not preserve a kind of self-respect by reasons



plausible to himself but whose validity no one but himself would admit. Without taking more extreme cases is it not well known that many are the sharp practices and actual dishonesties which are covered over by an artificial professional feeling, or on the plea of competition in the ordinary avocations of life? A great part of legislation for the business world consists in devising checks on this disposition, and bringing it into line with the morality of those whose interests lie outside, and who therefore see the matter from a more detached standpoint.

Man has always been fertile in the invention of excuses from the naïveté of the early days when he stammered out "the woman tempted me and I did eat" down to the days of science when "heredity" and "predisposition" have become words for him to conjure with. The theologians have had a hard task in endeavouring to prove to him that, whatever refuge he may find in fate or fatalism, or predestinarianism, there is a territory in which he must accept the consequences of free will and personal responsibility. But no preacher ever preached a more mercilessly satirical sermon against this kind of excuse than Shakespeare composed in "King Lear," and like every good sermon it has an application wider than the particular kind of excuse at which it is aimed. "This is the excellent foppery of the world that when we are sick in fortune (often the surfeit of our own behaviour) we make guilty of our disasters the sun, the moon and the stars; as if we were villains on necessity; fools by heavenly compulsion; knaves, thieves, and treachers by spherical predominance; drunkards, liars, and adulterers by an enforced obedience of planetary influence; and all that we are evil in, by a divine thrusting on." It must be admitted that it is extremely difficult for the normally constituted man to find a flaw in the argument of this magnificent rhetoric. We shrivel up in the blast of it. But there is after all a more amiable side to this tendency to find excuses. The mercy we show to ourselves we become more inclined to show to others. If some of our own excuses are flimsy, we become more willing to admit that there are others for whom circumstances have provided a good solid body of excuse. When we have blundered into some small social difficulty or other, and have had to save our face with excuses which come very near to lying—not having the necessary moral courage to go through with it otherwise—it needs but little imagination to suppose circumstances where moral cowardice might have led us to extricate ourselves by illegal means. The more subtle the analysis of our own motives and actions becomes the more altruism develops, and this is the progress of civilisation. Law becomes less cruel and extenuating circumstances are taken into account. Savages know very little of the admission of excuses for crime. We can speak of the excuses which are to be found in an unhealthy family history, of the pressure of society on the unfortunate who has been driven by poverty and ignorance into wrong-doing. In short we reach the state of mind which is expressed by the French proverb *Savoir tout; c'est pardonner tout*.

#### THE POOR MUSIC TEACHER.

LAST week when dealing with Colonial music I deliberately refrained from referring to America. It is a subject of which little is known to me, and, further, it may be doubted whether the Americans would quite care to be spoken of as British colonists. To be sure America was once a British colony, and then certain of our ancestors took it away from others of our ancestors. So much the histories record; but none of them, to my knowledge, refers to the fact that those of our ancestors who took the side of the mother-country have been amply avenged. For since the great Declaration of Independence those who rattled have been despoiled by a mighty host of Germans, French, Poles, Dutch and Russians: and what was once a solid English and English-speaking country has become a conglomeration of hybrids who speak a snuffle and a gargle which is certainly not the English tongue. Such names as Roosevelt, Carl, Schmidt, Steinweg, &c. have no peculiarly English sound in my

ears. This point has to be mentioned because this week I am taking as my text the "Musical Courier's" report of some recent proceedings of the Music Teachers' National Association. This is an American society formed by a number of music teachers with the object, formerly, of amusing each other, and, now, of instructing each other. We have an analogous institution in this country. About it I have written much, and before saying more let us glance at our American brethren's doings.

Here, first, are a few quotations from some of the speeches and papers.

W. H. Dava, of Warren, Ohio, said: "We started as a pedagogical body and attained great influence and numerical strength, but when the conventions became mere musical festivals the membership fell off. Then the management at times fell into the hands of a clique, under which the unknown and unfriended American composer had little chance of having his works produced".

"Mr. Bowman compared the hard lot of the old-time musician, who led the life of a wandering minstrel, with that of the present-day music teacher, who is welcomed in classic halls upon equal terms with our leading educators."

"Dr. Pratt said that in the best interests of the development of music in schools and colleges the time had gone by for seeking a large and miscellaneous membership in the National Association. He advocated the formation of more and stronger State associations. The important function, he declared, was not to give or attend musical performances, but rather to meet and to read and listen to dignified papers dealing with music questions and to see to it that the papers and addresses, with their subsequent discussions, were afterward printed so that they might be available to all who might wish to familiarise themselves with the views and opinions of the members of the national body."

General Horatio C. King said: "In fifty years from now 'Old World' aspirants for musical success will come to America to receive the stamp of approval that will make them worthy of recognition as artists. This is no idle dream, for there are signs in our musical progress that point to it."

"Half a century ago music in America was considered a luxury. As a livelihood it was worse than precarious. But our development in those five decades shows that we are as musical a people as the Germans. We have overcome all the prejudices that were formed against the violin, organ and piano by the Puritans of America, and music now has its proper place among the fine arts in this country, and its refining and elevating influence is recognised by all intelligent citizens. The lack of advanced music schools has been for many years a great drawback to the higher development of genuine talent."

"Why not extend the school system to include a conservatory of music here in the American centre of musical art? I would not have it free to all comers, but only to those who have the divine afflatus in a marked degree, and whose talents are approved after a most careful examination."

Three points are made. The National Association is a society of pedagogues; the pedagogue, instead of having to rough it as his forbears did, "is welcomed in classic halls"—which means, presumably, the halls of newly-arrived millionaires; and America, by means of large music schools, means to go ahead of all the world so that fifty years hence students will go as a matter of course from Europe to America to receive their musical education. This last is a painful look-out for old Germany, but there seems little need for immediate alarm. Every American youth or girl who wishes to become a serious musician and can afford the money goes to Germany to study, and this is likely enough to go on for some considerable time. As I pointed out last week, it is not the pedagogue who makes the musician—the student's real education begins only when the pedagogue is done with him. Of course the better pedagogues we have the better prepared will the pupils be for the most serious and difficult part of their training; the pedagogue counts for something, but the atmosphere the pupil goes to live in afterwards, the influences he comes under, the

opportunities he has of constantly hearing the best music and the greatest artists—these things count for a great deal more. What does the National Association propose to do to provide these things in America to one fiftieth part of the extent they exist on the Continent? No answer. Turn we, then, for a moment to another point. Mr. Bowman remarked on the hard lot of the old-time musician and the happy lot of the modern pedagogue (he might have put it that the pedagogues are better off to-day if the musicians and pupils are not). Apparently it did not occur to him that in the old days men were musicians first and teachers afterwards. Until the nineteenth century the teacher-specialist did not exist; before then the pupil had the teaching and the musician's influence at the same time. Nowadays few musicians go in for teaching if they can afford to do without it. One of the problems for the future to solve will be that of persuading all the best musicians to do a certain amount of tuition-work with a view of counteracting in some degree the dulling and disheartening influence of the mere bread-earning hack. In Germany and France through sheer force of tradition eminent men go on taking some pupils; but look at the American or English lists of professors—!

Mr. Marc A. Blumenberg's paper is the most fully reported in the "Courier". Probably some of his staff made him sit down in his chair and pointed a revolver at his head until he confessed the whole truth; and as he cherishes an invincible repugnance to having his brain-pan penetrated by a bullet he yielded. That is a fine way of dealing with editors; in more than one sense it keeps them in their place—the editorial chair—at least until help arrives. Aspirants to journalistic fame know perfectly well that the modern editor is never in his office when they call. Mr. Blumenberg's plea was practically one for a moderate chauvinism—he wants whenever possible American composers and interpretative artists to be engaged in preference to foreigners—that is, the Americans' and the foreigners' powers being equal. He complains, as he has often complained before, that the mere fact of a man bearing an American name is sufficient to prevent him getting a hearing. In this paper, by far the most valuable of the lot—for it contains no windy eloquence, but goes direct to the point with practical proposals—he suggests, as a start, that nothing but English should be spoken at all rehearsals in America. If this rule could be enforced it would have far more widely reaching results than might at first be thought. There would be a swift end of the supremacy of the foreigner who is enthroned on high simply because he cannot speak English; it would be found, for instance, that what the American conductor has to say is just as conducive to a good rendering of a work as any unintelligible foreign utterance. Yet let Mr. Blumenberg consider my first paragraph and my reference to the tongue mainly spoken in America. It will be hard indeed if the later conquerors of our conquerors of the eighteenth century have to give up their own speech suddenly. Perhaps an appeal to their chivalry might be efficacious; and Mr. Blumenberg might point to what befel in England after 1066 or thereabouts: what was at first the official tongue of the whole country was gradually absorbed by Anglo-Saxon and remains now the official tongue of Covent Garden only. I can testify that Mr. Blumenberg speaks German like a German and French like a kangaroo; yet without doubt on his native Broadway he rolls naught forth but his own vigorous and epigrammatic English. Why should other Americans drop English and speak German, where music is concerned, simply because they *can* speak it?

If the American teachers, as this conference of theirs shows, do not do much for musicians and little for their pupils, at any rate they do well for themselves and boast of it. What does our English society of teachers do?—the well-known Society of Illiterates? The truth may be plainly said in a very few words. This society would seem to exist for the purpose of pushing up higher the teachers who are at the top and crushing down firmly those that are at the bottom. The bulk of the members, the rank-and-file, pay their subscriptions and have the privilege of attending meetings to applaud the speeches and lectures of the big-pots who get the

advertisement and take the honour, the glory and the profit. The rank-and-file also receive a periodical publication in which the speeches are fully reported. The Illit. Soc. does nothing for music, nothing for musicians, and certainly nothing for the teachers. Nor does it do anything to raise the general status of the teachers. On the contrary nearly every lecture delivered before it lowers musicians in general in the sight of the public. I once implored the members to read one book and was sarcastically asked in the most illiterate and stupid paper of this or any other age "What book?" Well, I have no particular choice but venture to suggest an elementary grammar. It might not prove highly stimulating reading, but at least it would teach hon. Illits. not to indulge in such freaks of English as "They was" and "I been there".

Yet pity the poor music teacher! From his youth he has been taught to regard himself not as a possible musician but as a future teacher. For so long the foreigner has dominated us also that not one English musician in a thousand could hope to gain his bread otherwise than by teaching; and that one in a thousand has long ago given up the hope and, discarding fine music as a mere adjunct or even an encumbrance, concentrated himself on the "thing that pays". It has become a matter of business with him, and the only consolation he has is that most of his pupils nowadays desire nothing more than to be teachers. A few teachers "succeed" and live in noble houses and have lines of carriages drawn up at their doors; but the bulk grub along in shabby gentility and are glad to be counted the social equals of the local butcher. Again it will be asked, What is the remedy? The steady elimination of the foreigner and the steady resolve on the part of the rising generation to make themselves musicians at all costs and not to waste their time and money in worshipping the idols of the Illit. Soc.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

#### A FANTASY MISBEGOTTEN.

THIS week, again, a short play is my theme. It is called "Aylmer's Secret", was written by Mr. Stephen Phillips (at the tender age of nineteen, they tell me), and is now being acted, at the Adelphi Theatre, as a prelude to "The Comedy of Errors". Itself is full of errors that appeal to the comedic sense. As they are youthful errors, I do not hold Mr. Phillips gravely culpable for them. I expose them merely that other playwrights, meditating similar work, may not fall into them.

"Aylmer's Secret" purports to be a serious, philosophic fantasy. I welcome any approach to fantasy on the stage. Fantasy in a setting of modern life—such a fantasy, for example, as "The Admirable Crichton"—especially pleases me. But it must not then be serious fantasy. It may have a serious meaning; but that meaning must be illustrated in an expressly comic way. We must be expected to laugh. We are not expected to laugh at "Aylmer's Secret". The story is one that could never be told to us except in deadly earnest. Aylmer is a scientist. He has fashioned in his laboratory a human form. Fibre for fibre, cell for cell, the organism is perfect. It awaits only that elixir which shall endow it with life. Elixir in hand, Aylmer is torn between two emotions: pride in his achievement, and terror in having usurped God's prerogative. . . . The creature comes to life, and kneels to its creator, who shrinks away in horror. Aylmer has a daughter, whom he loves well; and his revulsion from his unnatural son is intensified by fear that these two creatures, so different, yet so akin, should come into each other's presence. He rushes out into the night. His son follows him. . . . Aylmer comes home, and finds the creature gone. Henceforth he will abjure his occult experiments. He will lead a happy and natural life, devoting himself wholly to his daughter. Time passes, and his mind is at rest. But, one night, he comes and finds, in his daughter's presence, his son. Spurned by the world that he had wandered into, the creature has crept back to its creator, and has stirred pity in the heart of Aylmer's daughter. Aylmer curses the creature, and bids it begone. The creature, and



the girl, plead with him. He is merciless. The creature falls down dead. Its heart is broken. "Who was he?" asks the girl. "He was my child", says Aylmer.

Such is the play, in outline. Many people would object that this kind of story cannot properly be told in dramatic form—is altogether unsuited to the theatre. "It would be all very well", they might argue, "in a book. There we could grant the author's premises, and be duly receptive. Our imaginations would have free play there. But on the stage, where definite, corporeal images are presented, keeping us bound to the actual world, such a story is artistically impossible, for we cannot forget that it is actually impossible. We could accept 'the creature' as presented to us through the hazy medium of black type on white paper. But when we see a young man, full-grown, walking and talking behind footlights, we can but shrug our shoulders, and smile". Well, I am less ill-equipped for appreciation of fantasy in the theatre. Definite, corporeal images do not utterly paralyse (though, certainly, they hamper) my imagination and my receptivity. If Aylmer, on the stage, were presented as a mediæval alchemist, with a long white beard, square-shaped spectacles, and a furred mantle, and if the whole of the play's sitting were in accord to him, I should be susceptible enough of Mr. Phillips' intent. I should be able to believe. Also, I should be able to control my features. But I defy myself not to be utterly sceptical, and not to smile, when Aylmer is standing all the while before me in dark-grey trousers, a brown velvet coat, and an up-and-down collar with a neat black cravat. If a playwright casts a (serious) fantastic idea into contemporary life, he may as well cast it into the waste-paper basket at once. Even in a book—even where no definite, corporeal images are presented—a modern setting is harmful to a tragical-supernatural theme. I have always regretted that Stevenson made of "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" a modern story. Not even his minutely realistic art makes the thing credible. On the other hand, his farcic fantasies are made doubly good by the familiar modernness of their setting. Delicious is the contrast thus achieved. It would be even more delicious if we could definitely see that contrast—see those solemn characters saying and doing those impossibly romantic things in the costume of to-day, and in the streets that we know so well. The more definitely we are reminded of the prosaic facts of actual life, the more ludicrous is a romantic variation on these facts. There you have the exact measure of Mr. Phillips' blunder. Having tied us firmly down to actuality, he expects us to take his miracles reverently. Wriggle as we may in our bonds, there is no escape for us; and so we cannot rise to reverence. The trousered alchemist tremulously plucks aside a curtain, and gazes at the lifeless youth who is his handiwork. The youth is not naked. But, we object, he surely would be. The notion of dressing him up before he comes to life strikes us as rather genteel. The alchemist has not gone so far as to clothe him in trousers, up-and-down collar, &c. He has draped him in a tasteful toga. Well, in a garret in Soho (Mr. Phillips insists on the exact district) this toga may pass muster. But when, at the end of the act, the youth walks out into the night, we cannot help wondering how the French and Italian denizens of Soho will take this new proof of the madness of English people. A similar anxiety seems to have haunted Mr. Phillips. For the wanderer, when, at length, he returns from his wanderings, is attired in an inconspicuous suit of reach-me-downs. The name of the shop where he bought it is not vouchsafed to us. We are left to speculate. Isaacson? Moss? Aaronson? Such speculations are, of course, deleterious, deplorable. But we cannot save ourselves from them. I have no patience with persons who, witnessing such fantasies as Maeterlinck used to write, have so little imagination that they can take the incidents only in reference to actual life. Still less patience have I with them if they titter, for lack of the good manners that would make their mistake inoffensive to other persons. I should blame anyone for tittering in the course of "Aylmer's Secret". But I should marvel at anyone who were not, throughout, sorely tempted to guffaw. The impossible rooted in

the actual: that is the formula on which Mr. Phillips wrote "Aylmer's Secret". Strange, that he did not foresee the sure consequence. True, he was only nineteen years old: I cling to the play's date. But sense of humour is not usually so late in development, is it?

Mr. Phillips' theme itself is quite a good one, as you will have gathered from my description, in which I carefully detached it from modern life. But the theme, quite apart from its setting, was not well worked out by Mr. Phillips. The treatment is unimaginative, inhuman. It is unimaginative that the creature of Aylmer should be an ordinary, decent, intelligent young man—a very fair specimen (as he seems to be) of the produce of our public schools. Some curious defect should have been imagined for him. He ought to have had no sense of right and wrong, or to have been, in some other way, monstrous. This would have given his creator some justification for loathing him, and wishing to murder him—not, indeed, for letting him loose on the world at large. Yet Aylmer, even with a hatred of his strange son, and with all his sense of blasphemy in having created a human life, ought to have had for this strange son a natural love. And in the conflict between these two feelings would have been found a fine motive, and the one right motive, for the play's action. As it is, Aylmer appears merely as a brute and a bully, who feels not the faintest sense of paternity until his son is comfortably dead. And, remembering that there will be an inquest, we rather hope . . . but I had already pressed enough the point of actuality. It is the essential crudeness and childishness of the conception that I . . . Enough of that, too. One is crude and childish at the age of nineteen. My only quarrel with Mr. Phillips is that "Aylmer's Secret" is one of the childish things that he should have put away from him—put away under lock and key—put away in a manager-proof safe.

MAX BEERBOHM.

#### WATERED GARDENS.

IT is a natural result from the fickleness of our British climate that we are always unprepared for downright extremes of weather. The indoor miseries endured by millions of people when either winter or summer happens to be "seasonable", because of our incorrigible faith in averages and the sufficiency of nine-inch walls and nine-inch grates, might be found if properly estimated to outweigh some of the more heroic scourges of humanity. There seems to be little hope of any change here, and perhaps as little of any early improvement in our outdoor relations with the weather: the roof over our heads seems to shut out more and more the influences of the sky. By our continents of Welsh slate, our miles of corrugated iron and glass, our stands and shelters and subways, our cabs and umbrellas, we are brought to think of rain as an incidental nuisance, merely "storm-water", matter for the sewers; snow under town conditions is almost a calamity. We only regard the meaning of the clouds as it is likely to affect hats or picnics: the cloudless blue is too crudely the holiday-maker's ideal to admit any taste for broken weather; and the effect of showers on a cricket-pitch or on the going of a racecourse is too roundabout an appeal, too much a matter of expert knowledge, to be generally informing. The one infallible way to recover something of the primal relation with the weather is to have to do with the land. There is no need to farm a thousand acres, or even three, to produce this result; a suburban grassplot is ample, a window-box will suffice, if the garden hose happen to be out of order, or the water-can be forgotten some burning day before the morning train. With such introductions a man enters upon large ranges of most profitable sympathy; his patch of ailing mignonette gives him the meaning of ten thousand fields of turnips fading under the fly; if a shining fortnight has coloured his strawberries—old favourites or new, either Paxtons or Laxtons—to his heart's desire, he will magnanimously suffer the August drought which handsomely rounds off the harvest. In a general way, in order most fully to feel his dependence on the heavens, a man

should be in command of a middle-sized garden of all sorts, so that he may be vulnerable through his turf, his roses, his early peas, his evergreens, his pears. Unless he live in some happy weather-zone which has so far escaped the records of the Rainfall Association, he will find out almost every year what a painful science is meteorology. When turf burns brown or stands a spongy swamp, when the dank mildew or droughty rust invades the roses, there remains the ever seasonable task of keeping the philosophic temper fair and green.

We have as a nation become so enamoured of set-fair conditions that we lose sight of the truth that vegetation—even Covent Garden itself—depends on intermittent rain: on British soil, at least, it is the alternation of wet and fine which brings every crop in its season. It is not too much to say that ten days of sun together, or four or five of rain, mean serious damage to all garden-stuff, the beginnings of death. And we do not sufficiently observe the differences of quality there may be in showers and in suns; the "glorious summer weather tempered by a refreshing breeze" of the holiday reporter is too often from the gardener's point of view a parching glare with an east wind absolutely poisonous to vegetation, and not without its effect on the human cortex. In the matter of rain, an hour's drip from the right quarter, full of warmth and a vitality which is perhaps electrical, may do more good than a day's soaking under chilly northern glooms. And there is room for observation of wider differences than these. At times the conclusion seems irresistible that our climate is changing for the worse, losing the qualities of temperate alternation, falling into a vicious cycle of extremes, with an unmistakable tendency, during the last twenty-five years at least, to the recurrence of summer drought. Save in the moist areas of the Atlantic coast, the chances are greatly in favour of a deficient rainfall in the growing season; and the question suggests itself, whether something could not be done to deal with conditions which seem likely to become constant. Our chancy skies and the expectant barometer-tapping habit of mind which they engender have deprived our northern gardens of the help systematically afforded in the regular dryness of the east or south. Even in a season that is wet as a whole there may easily be burning intervals, when the rain-battered soil, caked by the sun, cries out for moisture from above. On a review of the summers of the last quarter of a century, irrigation seems almost as desirable in these brumous isles as it is in Egypt. There has been no recent year without its thirsty fortnight—July was parched, even after the drowned June of 1903—and when as in 1897 and 1887 the fortnight runs on to eight or thirteen weeks, a gardener gets the worth of water well borne in upon him. Few things so stick in his mind as the breathless forenoons when the soil is ashes and the leaves wilt miserably; as the endless watching for the signs of thunder in the inexorable serenity of the evening sky; as the tantalising hours when the black shower trails its fringes along the neighbouring valley and gives his own particular hillside a sprinkling insufficient to lay the dust. In such conditions water becomes an obsession of the mind; the desert calen-ture has then its mirages to make the need the sorer—recollections of brimming dykes and mossy hatches in Itchen meadows, visions of a Westmorland lawn wet with the spray from its own waterfall, the tumbling beck that comes down from the breast of the fell dark under its streaming cloud. Too often the partial irrigation which is all that can be afforded only adds a final conviction of the futility of struggling with the elements; the labour with the watercan and swing-barrow, even where there is an unfailing source to dip from, is out of all proportion to the results. Watering, if it is not to increase the evil, must be comprehensive and searching. In theory, and on a small scale of things, perhaps the suburban hose, of sufficient length to reach every corner of the garden and turned on after sundown to souse everything within the palings, presents the model method; but in practice the chill and the hardness of the companies' water outweigh the handiness of its conveyance. There are many gardens where irrigation could be easily given from

a reservoir of sun-warmed water, led by gravitation through runnels and trenches; the cost would in many cases be much less than the amounts cheerfully voted for the groundwork and levellings of the necessary tennis or croquet ground. Any property with a brook or river in it (unless the gradients were exceptional) might be watered from the stream by means either of a dam or a ram; an ingenious estate carpenter could adapt the Eastern water-wheel, or the "swipe" of British brickfields. In many cases there are perennial springs, only waiting to be steered to the thirsty plots; even if wells or surface water alone be available, and pumping must be resorted to, the garden might be fed at a cost which would not be considered in obtaining a satisfactory house-supply. There would no doubt in any event always remain gardens enough to exercise man in patience and considering the clouds—waterless sands and coombs of the thirsty chalk—but for the great number of country places there is a possibility of improvement as yet almost untried. The new water-works might be on almost any scale. The single-handed amateur might make a desert flourish by banking up a pond and leading the water by channels of drain-tile; many an arid show-place might be beautified beyond recognition by a system of perennially-flowing conduits, with dipping-holes at proper places, fulfilling an office despised by the nymphs and spouting tritons of more pompous installations. In humbler flower-gardens and in kitchen-garden work red tile or wooden shoots would in most cases serve for the needful piping, and the deriving trenches would be drawn in the soil with the traditional hoe; but in any place where a certain expenditure is necessary, there would be scope for several sorts of taste in terra-cotta, ornamental lead-work, or even in solid marble. The simpler works would probably give the highest return of pleasure for the outlay. What true gardener will not be stirred by the imagination of serenely defying a brazen July, of smelling the reek of the soaked mould under a rich twilight of set-fair weather, while the drooping greenery visibly lifts itself and expands before him till he stops the last water-cut and calls to his deputy at the outfall to shut down the sluice? If it chance that his new waterworks meet with a July which measures six inches of rain, no harm will be done; and the reservoir will be all the readier for the ultimate drought. Sooner or later he will be glad to let loose the refreshing streams on the sunburnt soil, and when the fertile steam salutes his nostrils will pronounce his "sat prata biberunt" with the efficacy of a grace.

#### MOTORING.

AN extraordinary amount of feeling has been aroused by the regulations made by the Office of Works, whereby motor-cars are excluded from Hyde Park between the hours of four and seven. An interesting debate on the subject recently took place in the Peers, and in both Houses a number of questions have been asked, while many members have directly approached Lord Balcarras, as the official spokesman of the department in the House. In spite of the official refusals, it appears to be generally considered that there can be no reason to exclude electric carriages. It must be remembered that these regulations are not made on account of the speed of motor-cars, or because they are driven to the common danger, as the authorities already possess ample powers for dealing with these two points. Obviously, therefore, these new regulations have been made on account of noise, dust, and smell. Now, electric carriages are of all vehicles the most silent. They create little or no dust, and they emit no smell. It is confidently expected that the Office of Works will be authorised within the next few days to make a statement modifying the regulations so as to exempt electric vehicles from this newly imposed restriction, and that a promise will be made to reconsider the question of petrol cars before the renewal of these regulations next May.

Some misconception appears to prevail as to the reception of Mr. Soares' Bill to amend the Motor-car Act. Permission to introduce it under the Ten Minutes Rule was given in the House of Commons by a majority



of 222 against 58. The House was not voting on the merits of the bill, but on the claim of a private member to make use of the Ten Minutes Rule—a privilege hitherto regarded as belonging only to Ministers. This claim is strongly supported by Mr. Arthur Stanley, chairman of the Automobile Club, and, whatever opinion he may hold about the bill, he, like many of the private members who voted in the division, was bound to support the motion as to its being introduced.

A paper on the subject of public health and motoring was recently read by Mr. Herbert Jones, D.P.H., before a meeting of the Incorporated Society of Medical Officers of Health at Lancaster. This very important question has up to the present received little consideration. Even the influence of bicycles on the public health during the past twenty-five years has never been sufficiently realised. Not only have workmen and those whose daily work lies in crowded neighbourhoods been enabled to reside in healthier localities, but in the actual administration of the Public Health Acts the bicycle has played a most important part. We think that it will not be long before we acknowledge our indebtedness in the same direction to the motor-car.

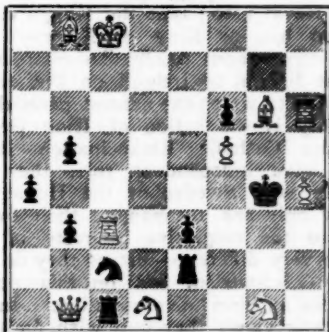
Mr. Jones stated that there were in particular two directions in which the medical officer of health who has the control of a large rural district finds himself handicapped against his colleague in a town. First of all he is handicapped in the investigation of an outbreak of an infectious disease which may be due to school influences. If these outbreaks are to be successfully combated, it is necessary to search out the "missed" cases. In the case of diphtheria one is able to call in the aid of the bacteriologist, but with whatever disease one is concerned it is of paramount importance that the inquiries should be made and a search conducted at the earliest possible moment. In a town this is not difficult, but in a large country district, where the medical officer of health may have to travel ten or fifteen miles to a school, he finds his difficulties in the absence of a motor-car almost insurmountable, and the outbreak which might have been checked occurs.

The second direction in which the motor-car will materially assist the medical officer of health in rural districts is in the investigation of the surroundings of all persons who die from consumption or from cancer. With the means of travel ordinarily at the disposal of country practitioners, this is quite a hopeless task, but it is one which ought to be performed, and, if carried out upon proper lines, might lead to the most important results. The introduction of motor-vehicles in our large towns will also have a most important effect upon the public health by lessening the disease which is caused by the wholesale dissemination of organic material contained in horse manure.

### CHESS.

PROBLEM 29. BY A. F. MACKENZIE.

Black 9 pieces.



White 10 pieces.

White to mate in three moves.

PROBLEM 30. BY A. F. MACKENZIE.—White (12): K-QR1, Kt-K1, Kt-Q8, R-Q4, R-KKt6, B-KKt1, B-KB5, pawns on KB3, KKt4, QB5, Q6, KB6. Black (11): K-K4, R-QR6, R-K2, Kt-KKt1, Kt-K7, Q-KR7, B-KR8, pawns on QR7, QR4, Q2, Q6. White to mate in two moves.

Solutions to above will be duly acknowledged.

By the death of Mr. A. F. Mackenzie the art of composing problems has lost one of its most distinguished representatives. As a collection of his problems is in the hands of the publishers it will be better to postpone a review of his work to a later date. It is only necessary to say that all his life was a struggle with death, and though in his later years he became totally blind it has never been suggested that his work suffered in any way. No composer has ever been so successful in competitions and tournaments, and as he continued to win prizes until quite recently it is certain that his imagination and power of execution did not suffer through physical ailments. Indeed, this phenomenon of a blind man composing erudite problems is more worthy of the consideration of scientists than writers on chess, to whom it is simply marvellous.

KEY TO PROBLEM 28: 1. Q-R3.

So far the Ostend tournament has been remarkable for the brilliant play of Janowski. Always original, always enterprising; that is the characteristic of the Russo-French champion. The following game is an average example:—

#### FOUR KNIGHTS' OPENING.

White	Black	White	Black
Janowski	Burn	Janowski	Burn
1. P-K4	P-K4	3. Kt-B3	Kt-B3
2. Kt-KB3	Kt-QB3	4. B-Kt5	B-K2

Last year at Cambridge Springs Janowski played this opening against Lasker on the last day of the tournament, upon the result of which depended the destination of the second and third prizes. It was only necessary for the former to draw to win the higher prize, and ordinarily this is considered one of the safest openings. Lasker, the greatest chess tactician the world has known immediately grasped the situation and played B-B4, instead of B-K2, appreciating tactics which only aimed at drawing. This was always considered inferior because of 5. Kt x P Kt x Kt 6. P-Q4 attacking the two pieces and a much freer game for white. Though Lasker won one of the most notable games of modern times, Burn does not risk the possibility of analysis to which his opponent may have subjected it, and plays the less enterprising move in the text.

5. P-Q4	P x P	9. B-KKt5	B-K3
6. Kt x P	Castles	10. QR-Q1	P-QR3
7. Castles	Kt x Kt	11. B-K2	Kt-Q2
8. Q x Kt	P-Q3	12. B-B1	...

Janowski is well known for his predilection for retaining two bishops and although at first glance he often seems to execute some extraordinary manoeuvres to achieve that end it is surprising how often success may be traced to that slight theoretical advantage. Here it seems to be altogether out of play with no more scope than at the beginning.

12. ...	P-KB4	15. Q x KP	B x Kt
13. Kt-Q5	P x P	16. B x B	P-B3
14. B-QB4	K-R1		

Black retains an old-fashioned idea that he has an advantage with four pawns to three on the queen's side. Though by Kt-B3 or Kt-B4 on the next move he could exchange knight for bishop he prefers to advance his pawns.

17. B-K6	P-Q4	20. B-B5	Q-B2
18. Q-Kt4	Kt-B3	21. P-KKt4	P-KKt3
19. Q-R3	B-B4	22. B x P	R-KKt1

It is easy after seeing the dénouement to point out that Kt x P would have been better. As in reply Q x Kt would have been forced, R-Kt1 wins the piece back with a certain attack on the king. Now the desperate situation demands a desperate remedy and white very rarely is found wanting under these circumstances.

23. B-B5	Kt x P	25. R x Kt	B x R
24. K-R1	Kt x P ch	26. B-B4	Resigns

The loss of the queen or mate cannot be avoided.

## BRIDGE.

## THE OPENING LEAD AGAINST A SUIT DECLARATION.

THE principles which govern the opening lead against a No Trump declaration and against a suit declaration are diametrically opposed to one another. We have already explained at some length that, against a declaration of No Trumps, the leader should not hesitate to give away one trick at first in the hope of establishing and bringing in the remaining cards of his long suit, but it would be a suicidal policy to do this against a strong suit declaration. When the dealer makes an original declaration of hearts or diamonds, the strength in trumps is then and there marked in his hand, and it is obviously useless for the opponents to aim at establishing a long suit which will have no value when it is established. Their first object should now be to win the number of tricks necessary to save the game before their small trumps are taken away from them, and before the dealer has an opportunity of discarding any of his small cards.

The best of all the original leads against a strong suit declaration is a singleton, provided that the leader has two or three small trumps. This lead was rightly considered a bad one at whist, and there still remain certain ultra-conservative players who cannot bring themselves to acknowledge the value of it at bridge, the reason being that they fail to recognise the fact that the conditions at whist and at bridge are entirely dissimilar. The number of such dissentients, however, is decreasing day by day, and it has begun to dawn on even the slowest minded of them that many a game is saved by this lead which could never have been saved by any other means. The lead of a singleton was, undeniably, a bad one at whist. At whist both sides start on equal terms, the strength in trumps is not declared in any one hand, and the leader's object is not to annex one or two tricks as quickly as possible, but rather to play for a big game, and to aim at winning the odd trick or more on that hand. At bridge the conditions are quite different. When a red-suit declaration has been made by either the dealer or the dummy, the opponents' game should be purely defensive. Their first care should be to win the requisite number of tricks to save the game, and the original leader should take the best chance which offers itself of winning those three or four tricks before he thinks of anything further. As soon as the saving of the game is secure, he can then go for better results, but saving the game should always be his first consideration. The more experience that a player gains of the game of bridge, the more fully he will realise what a strong weapon of defence is placed in his hands by this lead of a singleton against a strong suit declaration. It does not always succeed. Occasionally it may lead to disaster, but experience has abundantly proved that more games are saved by this lead than by any other. Great stress has been laid upon the singleton lead because there does still exist a prejudice against it in some quarters, and certain writers on the game have rather gone out of their way to condemn it, but the fact remains that there is hardly a first-class bridge-player at the present day who will not eagerly seize the opportunity of leading a singleton when he has the chance.

It must be borne in mind that the first lead is the only blind one. As soon as a card is led the dummy's hand is exposed on the table, and the leader is able to see, to a certain extent, how the land lies. Holding ace, king, and others of a suit, the king is an excellent card to lead, as it enables the leader to see the exposed hand without parting with the lead and without losing the command of his suit, but even when he holds an ace, king suit a singleton in another suit is generally a better opening lead. Suppose that the dealer declares hearts, the leader's hand is

Hearts—9, 5, 2.

Diamonds—8.

Clubs—Ace, king, 7, 5, 3.

Spades—Knave, 8, 4, 2.

If he leads the king of clubs first and then his single diamond, how can his partner be expected to know

what he is playing at, or which suit he wants returned? His partner will probably credit him with ace, king, knave of clubs, and will return that suit, unless the queen is in dummy, and the value of the singleton lead will be lost. He had far better lead his singleton at once and not confuse his partner by opening two suits. It is only as one original lead that the singleton is so valuable; when it is led as a second consideration, it is difficult for the leader's partner to understand the situation, but a good player is always on the look-out for the first lead being a singleton.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

## "THE ROYAL SWEDE UNFORTUNATE."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Bourne, 5 July.

SIR,—I have just returned from Norway and on looking through the accumulated numbers of the SATURDAY REVIEW have just read your article "The Royal Swede Unfortunate" of 17 June. It occurs to me that you, in common with the whole of the English Press, scarcely do justice to the Norwegian point of view. Indeed the title itself would create in your Norwegian's mind a similar feeling to that produced in a Scotch mind by alluding to the Union Jack as the "English flag", unless your excuse be the events of 7 June. Whilst I was there, I had the opportunity of ascertaining the feeling of several natives, from conservatives to extreme democrats. We are entirely in the wrong in drawing a parallel between the politics of the Scandinavian peninsula and those of the United Kingdom. It is not a case of Home Rule at all. Norway has never relinquished her position as a sovereign independent State. She has her own army, navy, coinage, parliament, civil administration, and code of laws; but her monarchy is vested in the same crowned head as that of Sweden, and for purposes of common defence her army and navy are put under one commander-in-chief by mutual arrangement. It is a matter of genuine grief to the Norwegian people that their King has acted as he has done, for their feeling of affection towards King Oscar is considerable, but they blame him because he has allowed Swedish advice to influence him in his action as Norwegian king. The Norwegians themselves do not feel that they have acted other than on strictly constitutional lines, their contention being that King Oscar's only ground for refusing the Royal assent to the Consular Law was his ability to form an alternative ministry; and that in face of the unanimous decision of the Storting the Royal veto was unconstitutional. They say, and with some justice, that they no longer live under the limited monarchy if they accept, under these circumstances, the Royal veto; that the King's own action has dethroned him as King of Norway. Thus a position has come about totally dissimilar to the relation of Great Britain to Ireland on the question of Home Rule, and to which the nearest parallel in recent English history is the action of King George III. respecting the Catholic Emancipation Bill. The Norwegians have independent rule, they have no quarrel either with Sweden or the House of Bernadotte, they only ask to manage their own affairs abroad—where the respective interests of the two countries are very different—just as they do at home, independently of Sweden, and on this point their attitude is one of firm determination. In spite of their democratic views they only wish for a republic as a dernier ressort and for this reason have offered the Crown to a member of King Oscar's family who is not in the direct line of descent to that of Sweden. As all this agitation is most detrimental to home development and improvement it appears highly desirable that a speedy and peaceful solution of the present impasse should be reached, and since Sweden admits that union by force would be weakness and not strength, let her accept frankly the Norwegian position and then conclude an offensive and defensive alliance



with the other two Scandinavian kingdoms, which should be a sufficient safeguard against the Russian—or German—bogey.

I am, Sir, yours truly,

ALBERT E. K. WHERRY.

#### "THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR SCARE."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

National Liberal Club, S.W., 2 July, 1905.

SIR,—In the leading article under the heading the "Franco-German War Scare" in your issue of 1 July you say:—"Great Britain could not in her own interests suffer France to be crushed by Germany" and the chief reason you put forward for it is the importance of preserving a balance of power in Europe.

Do you not think, Sir, that there is another reason of greater importance for Great Britain than the one you mention? Sure enough if unfortunately France is defeated Germany would take possession of Cochin-China—if not other French colonial possessions—and with her increasing naval power she would be as much a thorn on the side of India as Russia has been a danger to her on the north-west.

Then perhaps the next commander-in-chief in India will ask of the Government another ten millions for building barracks and concentrating the army on the Indian frontier, saying that the danger now lies on that side.

Your obedient servant,

P. J. DAMANIA.

#### PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Kincraig, Cutcliffe Grove, Bedford,

1 July, 1905.

SIR,—I have read the able and timely letter by Mr. F. Grenfell Baker on the above subject with much interest. There can be no question, amongst impartial observers, that some reform as proposed by Mr. Baker is desirable. Personally, I wish something better than the party system could be devised. It is strange that people, in many cases professedly experts, should differ so profoundly on fundamental subjects. Obviously, they cannot all be right. There are people in high places who seem to drift rather than lead, and foresight, in many important matters, seems conspicuous by its absence. The majority of people work hard and play hard, and have not the time, if they have the inclination, to go very deeply into complex social problems; but they seem willing to give their rulers a fairly free hand. Do the latter make the most of their power and position? I have my own views on this point. I am inclined to think that Mr. F. Grenfell Baker's letter is one of the most important communications that has been published recently, and I think the SATURDAY REVIEW deserves the credit and thanks of every serious-minded person for giving prominence to this important question of Parliamentary Reform.

Yours faithfully,

J. A. REID.

#### JOHN GRAHAM OF CLAVERHOUSE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Westerton, Cults, Aberdeenshire.

SIR,—May I venture to refer to one statement in your notice of my biography of Claverhouse? "The author", you remark, "seems to be unaware that the ancestry [of the Grahams of Claverhouse] is officially recorded". There is, in fact, no "official" genealogy of the family. Among the Duntrune MSS. there is a MS. genealogical tree, of modern compilation, and riddled with inaccuracies. The genealogy of the family

in Douglas's "Peerage of Scotland" is equally inaccurate. The genealogy given by Mr. Alexander Wedderburn, K.C. in his work on the Wedderburns is not "official", but it is more accurate than any other. It is, however, not free from error. I am not aware of any other "official" record of the family's ancestry. In the forthcoming third volume of the Lord Lyon's revised edition of Douglas's "Peerage" I have been privileged to furnish a record of the Claverhouse ancestry which, if not "official", is I hope authoritative. I share your reviewer's regret that in the concise treatment of Claverhouse's ancestry in my book I was unable to refer to my article in the Lord Lyon's "Peerage" as already in print.

Yours faithfully,

C. SANFORD TERRY.

[The pedigree of the Grahams of Duntrune, including that of "Claverhouse" and his ancestors, is officially recorded at the College of Arms, London.—Ed. S.R.]

#### S. GILES'S IN THE FIELDS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Stockwell, 12 July, 1905.

SIR,—May I call your attention to a plan that has been worked in Manchester during the past year or so? Those children whose parents can afford seven shillings are taken away in batches to a residential school in the country for a two weeks' stay. Lessons occupy the mornings only. Large towns are not fit places for the rearing of children. If children were brought up in country boarding schools and if, instead of the children going home to their parents during holidays, parents could be put up for a few days at a time in the school buildings we might be able to rear a healthy race.

Yours faithfully,

FRANK J. ADKINS.

#### THE PHYSIQUE AND IMPROVEMENT OF OUR PEOPLE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Christ Church Vicarage, Banbury, Oxon,

8 July, 1905.

SIR,—Referring to the report of the great Mansion House meeting of 28 June, and particularly to Mrs. Booth's speech on that occasion, in which she stated that an immense amount of good to the nation could be done by teaching the people the high ideal of motherhood, and maintaining the sanctity of marriage, I should like, with your permission, to point out that fourteen years ago the Church of England took this matter in hand. It was most effectually done when Mrs. Sumner in 1891 founded "The Mothers' Union", of which society H.M. Queen Victoria was the first patron. The society was founded on the principle that every home is a mint for coining character, and that the character of the nation is formed in the home.

These are three objects in the Mothers' Union:

1. To uphold the sanctity of marriage;
2. To awaken in mothers of all classes a sense of their great responsibility as mothers in the training of their boys and girls (the future fathers and mothers of England); and
3. To organise in every place a band of mothers who will unite in prayer, and seek by their own example to lead their families in purity and holiness of life.

The home is God's institution, ordained by Him at the creation of the world as the training place for parents and children. Fathers and mothers are urged to raise a high standard of life in every home. They are asked to bring up their children as total abstainers (unless the doctor orders otherwise); to train them both by word and example in religious observances, in private prayer, family prayer, and the worship of God in church on Sundays; to guard the home by their own

example from intemperance, immorality, betting, and gambling, from bad language, bad literature, doubtful companionship, and questionable amusements, remembering always that the future character of every child and young person depends mainly on the words, the ways, and the manner of life of the parents. This society is now spread all over the Empire and the Colonies, the sun never sets upon its constant beneficent work of building up a God-fearing race for the work of empire. It is to be found in other regions also, such as Japan, China, and Madagascar. Our gracious Queen Alexandra is the patron, and Mrs. Sumner of The Close, Winchester, the foundress, is still the society's revered central President. In view of what has been accomplished, and the great field open for further operations, I hope that you may be able to find space in your influential paper for this short statement.

Your obedient servant,  
F. M. BURTON, Vicar of South Banbury.

#### BEARING-REINS ON HORSES.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Manchester, 12 July.

SIR,—We flatter ourselves upon the high state of civilisation to which we have attained and upon our scientific knowledge, but there is one subject upon which we remain as barbarous as any savages and that is the treatment of our horses. Among the thousands of well-bred and valuable carriage horses in England, how many are treated rationally? Few owners are sufficiently interested to concern themselves about the detail of their stable management—the majority contentedly assume that their headman knows his work because they pay him high wages. But how many realise the fact that their carriage horses are restricted in their drinking water, being seldom allowed any with their mid-day meal—that their hoofs, frogs and soles are so rasped, cut and pared away by the shoeing smith as to require rubber or leather pads under their feet to protect the “quick” or sensitive part thus exposed—that their harness is seldom well adjusted and fitted—that their eyesight is checked and confused by blinkers—that their bits are shamefully severe and placed far too high up in the mouth—and to sum up that these matters are the real cause of tripping, of restiveness and of accident which that undisputed authority the coachman declares can only be checked by the application of a bearing rein. So these well-bred and valuable horses are fantastically turned out to look like giraffes with their heads hauled up to an unnatural height by the leverage of bearing reins that spoil their tempers, tend to paralyse their mouths, head and necks, distort their natural action to a “tooth-picking” prance and in general destroy the most graceful pose and gait of any animal in creation. Horses that bore or have become vicious through ill-treatment may require the help of a bearing-rein—but such horses are not driven in smart carriages—and to apply it to good horses in good condition and with—as all this class have—a splendid carriage and action is to make public the inefficiency, ignorance and indifference of the owners and their coachmen.

We pride ourselves as a nation upon our sporting qualities—but, to our disgrace be it confessed—we thus openly acknowledge our inability to drive and hold up the most docile of animals without the aid of unworkmanlike devices such as bearing-reins and blinkers. So much for the carriage horse. The cart horse suffers under the same disabilities in regard to stable management—and the large majority of carters honestly believe it to be impossible to control or even keep on his feet a heavy draught-horse without a hame-rein and blinkers—but thanks to the courage and humanity of the Midland Railway, who were the first large owners to abolish entirely that rein and to use open bridles—others have taken the plunge and followed their example with such excellent results as to make it a matter of wonder that any hame-reins and blinkers remain in use at all.

Yours, &c.  
MARCHOGES.

#### REVIEWS.

##### PROFESSOR DICEY ON LEGISLATION.

“*Law and Public Opinion in England during the Nineteenth Century.*” By A. V. Dicey. London: Macmillan. 1905. 10s. 6d. net.

THE Vinerian Professor of English Law has undertaken to expound a thesis that looks at first sight, according to Lord Beaconsfield's sarcasm, particularly suitable for legal disquisition. Expatiation on the obvious and illustration of the commonplace would seem inevitable when a writer proposes to show the relation between law and public opinion in England either generally or, as in this particular instance, during the nineteenth century. If legislation does not depend on conscious public opinion in these days, whatever else may have been its source at other periods, custom or the opinions of a sovereign or an oligarchy, it seems that there can be no other explanation of it. Professor Dicey has shown however that in his expert hands a truism, barren with most people, may be made to yield interesting results relevant to the study of legislation, law, and history. Public opinion, like democracy, is a word of so vague and mysterious a character that we neglect, as Professor Dicey remarks, to examine what it is that we mean by it, to measure the true limits of its authority, and to ascertain the mode of its operation. This is the analysis he undertakes in this book. We get a history of public opinion from a special point of view, and if it is far from being a history of opinion in its wider aspects during the nineteenth century, it deals with sufficient breadth and in sufficient detail with opinion as it affects the practical interests dealt with by legislation.

The central fact of the relation between nineteenth-century opinion and legislation is the rise of the Benthamite individualism and utilitarianism, with its twin brother the old orthodox political economy as we now call it; and the succession to it in about the last third of the century of practical socialism or collectivism; a régime under which we are at present and which Professor Dicey admits as yet shows no sign of exhausting itself. We say “admits” because, though Professor Dicey in many phrases here and there makes one suspect that his sympathies took a bias in the earlier period when individualism was triumphant, he is strictly the impartial historian and his book is not in any sense controversial. The change has taken place, and if he does not leave us in much doubt that the theory of individualism in his opinion is more intelligible and consistent than any theory of collectivism that has yet been put forward, the fact of the change and the influence it has on every individual of this generation is not to be denied. The following paragraphs contain perhaps the very best description that could be framed of the actual condition of thought at present:—“We all of us in England still fancy, at least, that we believe in the blessings of liberty, yet, to quote an expression which has become proverbial, ‘to-day we are all of us socialists’.” The confusion reaches much deeper than a mere opposition between the beliefs of different classes. Let each man, according to the advice of the preachers, look within. He will find that inconsistent social theories are battling in his own mind for mastery. Lord Bramwell, the most convinced of individualists, became before his death an impressive and interesting embodiment of the beliefs of a past age: yet Lord Bramwell himself writes to a friend ‘I am something of a socialist’.”

The explanation how this curious state of mind has been produced is really the history of legislative opinion during the nineteenth century. There was no hesitation about Benthamism. From about 1825 until the later editions of Mill's “*Political Economy*”, which was first published in 1848, the prevalent opinion was that the action of the State was to be circumscribed within the narrowest possible limits, and laissez-faire was at once the simplest and most perfect political, economic and social doctrine. But Mill himself was in the latter part of his life well on the way to state socialism. Professor Sidgwick has said “We have the remarkable phenomenon that the



author of the book which became for nearly a generation by far the most popular and influential text-book of political economy in England was actually—at any rate when he revised the third and later editions—completely socialistic in his ideal of ultimate social improvement. John Bright is said to have declared that Mill's concession that in certain circumstances protection might be a benefit to a country had done more harm than the whole of Mill's "Political Economy" had done good. Many events had been preparing for this change of view which grew more pronounced until an economist like Jevons, one of the class reared upon Mill who yet shut their eyes to his socialism, wrote in 1882 that it was futile to attempt to uphold, in regard to social legislation, any theory of eternal fixed principles or abstract rights, such as the control by the State of industry, or free trade, which were in each instance to be settled by the consideration whether, as Professor Dicey puts it, state action is likely to be more beneficial than unrestricted competition. That was a proposition which no individualist philosopher or economist would have allowed to be so stated. His assumption was absolutely against state action. And yet the individualist utilitarians prepared the way by their reforms for the extension of state action which followed when their theories had become unpopular. In a sense their demand for political and legal reform was really evidence that this very doctrine of laissez-faire had produced the evils they denounced. There had been so much complacent contentment with the British Constitution, and so much fear of change, that legislation had been kept at a minimum and abuses had been allowed to grow. The first Reform Act, and the Municipal Corporations Act, introduced the era of parliamentary legislation for the removal of abuses; and the individualists forged the instrument by which subsequent state action was facilitated when collectivism came into favour. The value of their labours in this direction must be admitted even by those who deny absolutely that their general doctrine of individualism is adequate to the requirements of industrial and social life.

Professor Dicey gives an admirable account of the "stream of facts" which put this doctrine to the test and proved it wanting. The first factory legislation began through an humanitarian impulse which was shared by Benthamites and Tories alike, and its socialistic implications in such legislation were not perceived by its early supporters. Lord Shaftesbury was a Tory, and so were the main supporters of factory laws; but later, by the time of the Ten Hours Bill, the contest between collectivism and individualism was seen to be in issue, and the manufacturers were led to defend many abuses because they felt their fundamental doctrine was at stake. Then in course of time there came the downfall of the utilitarian or individualistic political economy as an infallible coherent system of doctrine. Much of the best reading in Professor Dicey's book consists of personal sketches. In illustration of the change of opinion we are speaking of he gives three such sketches of Mill, Miss Martineau, and Dickens, who each in their several ways were greatly interested in industrial and social questions, were popular exponents of them, and who exemplified the disintegration that was going on in the old radical ways of thinking. Then there was the great development of business which brought into prominence the idea of combination rather than of individual enterprise. Great railway undertakings began for which the property of individuals might be taken if the community had need of it; joint-stock companies of all kinds accustomed the public to the idea of corporate instead of individual management; the legalisation of trade unions, which started with a Benthamite compromise in which the claims of the individual predominated, proceeded until in 1875 the combination principle received the extended form which it enjoyed till a few years ago, when judicial decisions unexpectedly curtailed it. And here we have an instance of one of those cross currents of opinion which are always at work modifying the characteristic current of a period. It also seems an instance of another curious fact, which Professor Dicey notices, that in many cases it is at the moment when a principle has reached the full tide of its success that a reaction sets in. He asks whether this may not

possibly happen with the collectivist movement; and he suggests that it may possibly come with growing expenditure. This however seems rather the despairing hope of a distressed Benthamite. We must put down to individualism the Divorce Act of 1857, and the various Married Women's Property Acts which together have revolutionised the law of marriage. As a further example of cross-currents we may mention the course of ecclesiastical, university and educational legislation where we see the individualistic, Liberal or Radical attacks on the Church, or the efforts to secularise education, neutralised by views and sentiments opposed to the predominant tendency in legislation. But at the present moment the most striking reverse of individualism is to be found in the imperialism which has taken the place of the anti-colonial policy which was generally prevalent some thirty years ago. If this policy cannot be attributed solely to the Manchester School at that time it was the last to abandon it, if even yet it has quite done so; for the free-trader generally remains somewhat less than enthusiastic about imperial concerns.

#### PREACHING BY PARADOX.

"Heretics." By Gilbert K. Chesterton. London: Lane. 1905. Price 5s.

MR. CHESTERTON is suffering from himself. He early obtained a reputation for paradox, and he seems a little too anxious to live up to the reputation. Now paradoxes are excellent as a flavouring to style, but they are fatal as a foundation, since their effect must rely on their unexpectedness, and used as they are by Mr. Chesterton one expects nothing else. In addition he employs them indifferently to give a startling and valuable view of truth, and to colour humorous and rhetorical exaggeration. He really does believe that "the great gap in Mr. Kipling's mind is what may be roughly called the lack of patriotism", but he probably really does not believe that "when genial old Ibsen filled the world with wholesome joy . . . the kindly tales of the forgotten Emile Zola kept our firesides merry and pure", but the effect of this double use of paradox in a book paradoxical in method on the humble and earnest reader is that which would be produced on the navigator by a channel strewn with buoys painted in imitation of those meant to mark it. He begins by paying too much heed to the buoys, and ends by disregarding them altogether. It is a pity that Mr. Chesterton's abuse of his facility should court the same sort of treatment; for if some of his inversions are "old fond paradoxes to make fools laugh i' the ale-house", by far the greater part are forcible, illuminating, and eminently serious. In criticism it is too often the critic who is the heretic, the destroyer, who has nothing to formulate but an objection to other men's formulæ; but even Mr. Chesterton's objections are constructive, for his criticism is inspired by a difference not of opinion but of faith. Thus his criticism becomes really a defence of his own position, and nothing could better outline that position than the fact that he finds against him allies so alien as Mr. Rudyard Kipling, Mr. Bernard Shaw, Mr. H. G. Wells, Mr. George Moore, Mr. Lowes Dickenson, Mr. McCabe, and Omar Khayyám. He treats them all with a fairness which is the best proof of his ability, and is quite capable of appreciating each from his own point of view. It is by virtue of that power that he fixes, as a significant feature, on Mr. Kipling's lack of patriotism, on the almost mechanical justice and thorough consistency of Mr. Shaw, on the gay and exhilarating progress towards conservatism of Mr. Wells, on the reactionary ignorance of Mr. Dickenson, on Mr. McCabe's frivolity, on the mildness of the Yellow Press, and on the depressing Puritanism of FitzGerald's Omar. Nor is there anything in these apparent inversions really perverse. Mr. Chesterton is sometimes a trifle too plainly pleased by their perversity, he is sometimes too easily inclined to elaborate on their perversity, but that perversity is never sought for its own sake, but is always, to his understanding, a happy accident incidental to his being so conspicuously in the right. He has a sound and generous appreciation of the men

from whom he is divided by every sort of fundamental doctrine, which helps him to a perception both of their weakness and of their strength. He sees that "the fascination of the standing army upon Mr. Kipling is not courage, which scarcely interests him, but discipline, which is, when all is said and done, his primary theme". "The truth is", he declares, in illustrating Mr. Shaw's deficiency, "that all genuine appreciation rests on a certain mystery of humility and almost of darkness". "The weakness of all Utopias is", he remarks, in writing of Mr. Wells, "that they take the greatest difficulty of man and assume it to be overcome, and then give an elaborate account of the overcoming of the smaller ones". It is interesting to notice how much Mr. Chesterton's distinction depends on his subject. There is, in the evident failure of his vitality in treating of less vital matters, a hint of that parasitic taint from which so much criticism suffers. It is when thus depressed that he descends to a jugglery with words which disparages his fine use of them on other occasions. "To take a thing and make a joke out of it is not to take it in vain", he replies in defending himself with the Third Commandment from a charge of irreverence. "It is, on the contrary, to take it and use it for an uncommonly good object. To use a thing in vain means to use it without use." From that literary sleight of hand Mr. Chesterton might pray to be delivered. He might do better. He might write of nothing with which it seems to match.

#### THE ATHENIANS AT HOME.

"*Essai sur la Composition des Comédies d'Aristophane.*"  
Par Paul Mazon. Paris: Hachette. 1905.

"*The Peace of Aristophanes.*" Edited by H. Sharpley.  
London: Blackwood. 1905. 12s. 6d. net.

IN the rude beginnings and sudden maturity of Attic comedy scholars have long been provided with a field of fascinating conjecture. The comedy of Aristophanes, like the marvellous democracy to which it held up the mirror, was one of those tropical growths which delight us not less, but more, because in their very nature they baffle the evolutionary theorist who is now become so omnipresent and incorrigible a nuisance. Moreover even such inadequate data as would suffice to materialise the airy activities of this person are here to seek. Earlier than Aristophanes' day we have nothing tangible, and by that time a strictly dramatic motive is more or less apparent throughout. For M. Paul Mazon, it is true, the Old Comedy is interesting mainly in its morphological aspect and as a composite development; but he has wisely refrained from bypaths of hypothesis, however tempting, and contents himself with such general conclusions only as a careful and persevering scrutiny of the extant plays themselves will justify. The result is a volume of which M. Maurice Croiset (whose essay on the whole subject, in the January number of the "*Journal des Savants*", is packed with suggestion) justly writes: "C'est le travail le plus complet, le plus solide, le plus précis et le plus clair qui ait encore été écrit sur cette matière." We do not of course pretend to attach a final importance to structural analysis, whether of ancient comedy or of any other poetic creation. In these columns we have always maintained that classical studies are valueless except in so far as they contribute to the perception and just enjoyment of literature in its ultimate function as the exponent of human passion or wisdom. There is, however, among works of classical scholarship, a small and select number which, although directly they are concerned not with the spirit but with the framework of ancient literature, are none the less indispensable, just as works of genuine anatomical research are necessary to medicine. To this number M. Paul Mazon's treatise may worthily be added. No careful reader of Aristophanes, play by play, should be without it. It simplifies, as no work hitherto has simplified, our attempt to grasp what is really happening on the stage, and to see the parts in some unity of technical setting. It is in short a kind of architectural guide to the Old Comedy. The function

of the chorus in the development of a motive, and the position occupied by the chorus when that development is complete—points full of difficulty—are fruitfully kept in view throughout the separate discussion of each play. Naturally a good deal of light is shed, therefore, on that character of compromise which lends to the Old Comedy in general so perplexing an interest for the student of origins. For ourselves the value of the book is in the real help it will supply as a work of reference, whenever the actual text of Aristophanes invites our enjoyment. M. Mazon, though not professing in this book to be other than technical, is by no means arid. He has the incommunicable French knack in criticism, which can be fresh and delicate at times even on the most unlikely subjects, and can impart a sort of life even to skeletons.

Mr. Sharpley's edition of that not particularly attractive comedy the "*Peace*" is obviously the outcome of time and labour, and throughout bears evidence of minutely accurate textual study. It cannot however be ranked among the choice company to which we have alluded. For some time, no doubt, this will continue to be the most complete edition of the play accessible to English students; but one misses the breadth of interpretation, pervasive sense of humour, and imaginative insight, which alone can lift such a work above the level of a magnified schoolbook. The matter of introduction and notes is good of its kind, and modern in the sense that it exemplifies a degree of research and comparison that fifty years ago would have been impossible. Modern in the larger sense it is not. We perceive everywhere the old scholastic tradition—a disproportionate concern with questions of grammar and letterpress which nowadays (outside professionally academic circles) is recognised as quite alien from the modern spirit.

Of Aristophanes it may be said, perhaps more truly than of any other writer, that it is impossible to dissociate his excellence as artist pure and simple from his symbolic value as product and critic of his age. He is not merely, like Shakespeare, a culmination of artistic and national forces. He is not, like Sophocles, the abstracted essence (so to speak) of Athenian life in its deeper significance. Sophocles and Shakespeare, typical as they are, are not immediate reflections of their environment. They embody contemporary ideas and feelings, but at the same time they transmute and raise them to a higher plane. Aristophanes on almost every page convinces us that what we are seeing is neither more nor less than Athens itself. Corroborative evidence is quite unnecessary. With what signs of emotion a passage of "*Antigone*" was received we can only guess. But in reading Aristophanes we can hear the shouts of joy from that extraordinary crowd; the rapport between actors and audience is everywhere visible. The "topical" character (as we say) of these comedies is quite spontaneous and natural. It is no laboured attempt to tickle the ears of the groundlings. It is pure joie de vivre, and expresses the irresponsible, almost riotous interest with which the average Athenian contemplated the world. Aristophanes is at no pains at all to conceal his sentiments about democracy; he goes out of his way indeed to flout it and democracy appears to have enjoyed his missiles amazingly. That a comic writer, dependent on popular favour, should have laid himself out to insult the popular political doctrines—a fact highly paradoxical from the modern standpoint—need not surprise us. To understand Athenian "democracy" we must begin by ridding the word of its modern connotation. The modern democrat is marked by nothing so much as a deadly seriousness. He is sensitive to ridicule. The thing he can least stand is mockery of what he describes as his sacred convictions. No sacred convictions whatever encumbered the Athenian. He was an artist and more or less ragged gentleman at large. Cleon might yesterday have swayed the assembly, but in his soul the Athenian was always free. Nobody could outrage his dogmas because he was too imaginative to have any. With slaves to provide the first condition of an active leisure, an empire to provide him with pocket money, and events at home or abroad to feed his imagination, the Athenian was perfectly happy. Politically, of course, this restless crave



of the imagination was his bane. It produced the Sicilian enterprise and the downfall. But it enabled him to note with keen enjoyment the foibles of any sausage-seller who might for the moment fondly consider himself a leader of public opinion. The Athenian mob in short, so far from being (as it has often been depicted) a mob of fickle dupes, was really a mob of joyful romantics who took nothing seriously—not even themselves—except through what in these days we should call the poetic sense. Aristophanes is peculiarly in touch with modern readers because he wrote for an essentially “modern” audience, for people who were interested in everything and shocked at nothing. In Aristophanes’ day the distinction between the romantic spirit and the classical spirit had not emerged. Athenians had both. Tragedy ministered to their love of firm outline and their sense of the past. But they had also the romantic vein. They were masters in the play of thought and feeling upon contemporary things—could extract the emotional value of these no less vividly than they could appreciate the heroic ideal. Their recognition of forces was almost as clear as their perception of types. Hence they needed comedy also. And even in comedy itself this dual, or rather inclusive, nature of the Athenian called for satisfaction. Aristophanes is not content with mere realism, however pungent, nor with mere burlesque, however amusing. The intellectual element in comedy is not completed even by the literary satire and the political significance. There is something more—a lyrical rapture, glimpses of delicate symbolism, outbursts of fantastic beauty, as the “Clouds” and the “Birds” are enough to prove. On Aristophanes as conservative philosopher too much stress, probably, has been laid. We need not fly to the religious associations and *raison d’être* of comedy in order to explain the aversion from social change and solvent doctrine which in Aristophanes is so conspicuous. All comedy, however it may laugh at the surface of things as they are, is at heart conservative. Revolt belongs to tragedy. Comedy does not remake the world, but takes it as it finds it. In the comedy of Aristophanes we get not only acceptance of life, but exuberant, uproarious delight in life.

#### AN AUSTRALIAN TESTIMONY TO SHAKESPEARE.

“William Shakespeare; his Life, his Works, and his Teaching.” By G. W. Rusden: Melbourne and London: Melville. 1905. 10s. 6d. net.

IT cannot be said that this substantial volume adds anything of importance either to our knowledge of Shakespeare or to the elucidation of his works, and the author’s modestly sensible assertion in the opening words of his preface, “so much has been written about Shakespeare that it would be vain to hope that at this time another writer can add anything which is new and true”, may be taken as very strictly indicating the character of this, the most recent contribution to a too voluminous species of literature. But the author is plainly a ripe Shakespearean scholar, and an enthusiast who has a solid basis for his enthusiasm. We have singled it out for special notice, however, not so much on account of its intrinsic value as for what it indicates. Nothing links us more closely with our colonies than a common interest in a common literature, and hearty indeed should be the welcome given to any worthy expression of that interest. However remote imperial federation may be at present, in any of the senses contemplated by politicians and economists, we see no reason why it may not be realised in another sense. In one cult and creed the English-speaking races are in danger of no schism, to one sovereign the most recalcitrant are never likely to grudge homage. More than forty years ago the author of this work was instrumental in founding a Shakespeare scholarship in the University of Melbourne, and it is his pious intention that the proceeds of this work, should any result, shall go to founding similar scholarships in other places of Australia. We heartily wish him all success, and we

wish as heartily that others might be found who would follow his example.

There can be no question that after the Bible the writings of Shakespeare come next in influence. More and more is the world beginning to feel that if he is a great artist he is as great a teacher, that if we cannot go to him for theology we can go to him for ethics: that his poetry can be to us what great poetry was to the ancient Greeks, all that Aristophanes meant when he said “as long as men remain boys they have the schoolmaster to teach them but when they grow up the poets are their teachers”. Of this there can be no question, that of all the writings in the world his dramas both exact and betray the most reverent and patient study, that almost inexhaustible as is nature herself, as inexhaustible in what they suggest as in what they express, in what they contain in embryo and in what they unfold, it is only by combined study from innumerable points of view that they will yield their full measure of edification and interest. It is easy to ridicule “societies” and it is easy to ridicule “scholarships”, but there can be no doubt that in the elucidation, intelligent study and dissemination of what is worth elucidating, studying and disseminating institutions do invaluable service. What is now wanted is not only to bring the colonies and this country into closer communion in such studies, but to place them on the same level in point of information and scholarship. This cannot be done by the ordinary media. The press for various reasons, too obvious and too invidious to specify, cannot take the measure of the contributions to criticism and to antiquities which come pouring forth every month. The consequence is that in any given study, and particularly in Shakespearean study, all is out of proportion and out of focus. What has practically been settled and determined is not known, and endless repetition, straw-threshing and “crambe repetita” take the place of what ought to be attempts to break fresh ground.

This book, we say it in no offensive sense, is an instance in point. Mr. Rusden has obviously not kept pace with Shakespearean criticism and exegesis during the last ten or twelve years. The acumen which he exercises on quite unnecessary discussions might and should have been exercised on what would have been profitable: in very much relating to the minutiae of Shakespeare’s biography he is far in the rear, and the consequence is that in spite of his unquestionable erudition and scholarship the greater part of his book is mere superfluity, and where it is not superfluous it is deficient. But as Pope observed of Hughes “what he wanted in genius he made up as an honest man”, so it may fairly be said of Mr. Rusden what he wants in the latest information he makes up in modesty and genial enthusiasm. We are also indebted to him for a very interesting addition to the numerous parallels which have been cited between passages in Shakespeare and the Greek plays. When Prometheus, as he is being riveted to the rocks is asked if he is not afraid, he replies

*Τι δ’ ἄν φοβοίμην ὃ θαυρὶν οὐ μὲρσιμον;*

Why should I fear who am fated not to die?—

which is ingeniously compared with Hamlet’s remark when he is entreated not to follow the Ghost:

Why, what should be the fear?

I do not set my life at a pin’s fee;  
And for my soul, what can it do to that  
Being a thing immortal as itself?

Mr. Rusden’s book is certainly a credit to Australian scholarship, and, if we have pointed out what seem to us its defects, we have simply done so for the sake of accentuating a plea which we are very sure he would be the first to support, that, whether by societies or scholarships, colonial Shakespearean students should be brought into more immediate and influential contact with what is being done for the elucidation of the poet who is the common glory of his compatriots beyond the sea as of his compatriots at home.

## A PICTURE-BOOK OF ROME.

"Rome." Painted by Alberto Pisa. Text by M. A. R. Tucker and Hope Malleson. London: Black. 1905. 20s. net.

THIS addition to Messrs. Black's series of books about places, illustrated in colours, is certainly an interesting work. Signor Pisa's illustrations, though not always true and not always pleasing, are decidedly above the level of modern Italian art. But the pictures scarcely stand in need of any text, and the text, more emphatically, requires not a single illustration, plain or coloured. The want of harmony between text and illustrations is, as we have already pointed out, something of a defect in this series. Given an artist of marked idiosyncrasy the author may find himself compelled at least to "write round" the sketches, but the strong, combative idiosyncrasies of the present writers wholly submerge the placid pictures of the Italian artist, and for the purposes of this book they need never have been painted.

"Rome", tout court, is an ambitious title to give to a book, and the reader must here look for no more than a few aspects of Rome, ancient and modern. But these aspects are treated with very considerable ability, and the writers have very decidedly the gift of interesting. A capital defect of the work is a total want of all references. We have noticed throughout but three or four references to authorities, and even then chapter and verse are not given. A learned writer cannot serve his reader better than by the fullest references to sources. It is an education of itself to the novice; and the historian should not only aim at making a book, but also show his book in the making. Besides the present work bristles with contentious matter, sometimes for, more often against, Papal Rome, and as many of the statements are startling in the extreme, the candid reader is apt to doubt where he cannot readily prove for himself. What, for instance, is the authority of these ladies for the Roman gutter language at the head of page 226—we really do not care to reproduce it—and do they wish us to believe that the shop notice which they quote, if it ever existed, was anything more than the coarsest species of Roman jest? Generalisation is another defect of the book. This style of writing, with a frequent absence of dates and a complete absence of references, cannot but give an effect of inconclusiveness, and is extremely difficult to follow and to check. But to say of the Italian princes and their subjects that "the governed had only duties and the rulers only rights", if a smartish epigram sentence, is assuredly nothing more. It was rather the ruler's strenuous view of his duties (e.g. Ferdinand II., Francis V.) than any insistence upon his rights which led to rebellion, just as it was (and always is) the notion of popular "rights" rather than that of a subject's duties which culminates in revolution.

In the chapter on the Roman people the authors are at their best. The Roman character is sketched with much subtlety often illumined by real brilliance. Not but what there seems to us exaggeration here and there of both the good and the bad—and especially of the bad—qualities of the people. The account of the State Lottery is very defective. It is incorrect to say that every "tiny village" in Italy has a Lotto shop: suffice it to say that there is no single institution of the kind in the whole island of Sardinia. You cannot, as our authors say, play six centimes in the Lotto: the lowest ticket is twelve centimes. There is no "cinquina" in the Lotto: the writers are here confusing the State Lottery with a public "Tombola". It is quite incorrect to state that "not more than five numbers can be played": you may play as many of the ninety numbers as you like though the point is soon reached where a win would not yield even the full return of the stakes. These errors about a popular, everyday, well-known institution could not have been made by a Roman monello, and serve to cast a doubt upon facts less easily ascertainable. There are chapters on the Roman Cardinal, the Roman princely families, the Roman religion, and—an odd way of illustrating placid pictures—even the thorny Roman question comes in for lively and spirited treatment. The chapter on

"Rome before 1870" does not quite convince. The writers do not seem to us sufficiently to realise that many of the shortcomings of the Papacy were due to the endeavour to maintain an ideal which, whatever we may think of it, was at least more difficult of realisation to human nature than the colourless civic ideals of the present day. But if the book does not wholly commend itself to us we can emphatically declare that it is brilliant, suggestive, original and interesting from the first chapter to the last.

## NOVELS.

"The Walking Delegate." By Leroy Scott. London: Heinemann. 1905. 6s.

There is sometimes a difficulty in speaking of English literature to differentiate between that branch of it written on this side of the Atlantic and that written on the other. This book suggests that the time is not far off when books produced in America will not be English literature at all—good, bad, or indifferent—but just American literature of one of these qualities—written in a language that will have to be translated into English to be understood here. From the very first page of "The Walking Delegate" we realise that the words are the words of England, but that the significance is the significance of America: "A raw February wind scraped slowly under the dirty clouds, which soiled the whole sky, and with a leisurely content thrust itself into his office-tendered flesh"! The very title will convey little meaning to English readers. The "walking delegate" in the instance of which Mr. Leroy Scott writes is the personal power at the back of a strong trade union, a man who having at first done good for his fellow-workers later becomes a bully and a "grafter" which apparently signifies one who while representing the interests of Labour allows himself to be bribed by Capital. Buck Foley is the central figure of the story, and the romance—if we may call it such—consists in the strong efforts made for his overthrow by plucky Tom Keating. Of course there are strikes and such-like inevitable incidents of a "Labour" novel, including a hideously riotous "election" by which Foley counters his courageous opponent. Then, too, there is an enthusiastic young stenographer, who falls in love with Tom Keating—while Tom is married to a young woman who nags him for refusing to take the line of least resistance. It is not a pleasing story by any means; as story indeed it is of the slightest, it is rather a series of sketches illustrating the contest between good influence and bad influence as controllers of a large gang of labourers. If it is to be taken as in any way typical of one side of life in the New York of to-day, then that life must be in a parlous condition, from which it would take a regiment of Tom Keatings to rescue it. It is an almost unrelievedly sordid story, which does not seem any the more real from the fact that the walking delegate is drawn as a most exaggerated type of villain, who can cow strong men with a look.

"Mrs. Lygon's Husband." By Adeline Sergeant. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

This further story from the pen of the late Adeline Sergeant will command some measure of attention from the supporters of the circulating libraries; it will neither lessen nor enhance the reputation of the departed author. The long arm of coincidence is one of the most obvious of the properties with which a novelist can bring about his results, so obvious is it as a means for reaching over a difficulty that it should be used by the skillful artist as sparingly as possible. In this story we have it employed unsparingly. It has a way of curling round the most difficult corners that it may help matters to the desired end. Mrs. Lygon has been for several years in an asylum for the insane, placed there by her husband. She is cured, and comes out; meanwhile her husband and their little girl have disappeared. Mrs. Lygon travels up from the country to Charing Cross with a young lady companion who turns out to be the very person whom Mrs. Lygon's



husband has thoughts of marrying. There is a remarkable likeness between Gilbert Lygon and George Langhorne on which much turns. Mrs. Lygon seeks in vain for her missing child, then she goes on a short journey, there is a railway accident—story-writers owe a special statue to Stephenson—and she is taken to the very house in which that child is being brought up. That coincidence is too simple, so we have the further one that before the accident she has laid her cloak beside a fellow-passenger and has taken that fellow-passenger's infant on her knee. In the accident the infant and its mother are killed and the mother is buried as Miriam Lygon—hence further complications leading to the final clearing up, but before that end is reached again the long arm has to be utilised, and a certain piece of impersonation being exposed the heir to the property involved is found in the lawyer's clerk who has befriended the neglected child of the impersonator. It is all very exciting—but scarcely convincing; and the reader is so plainly shown what course the story is going to take that his attention is by no means taxed, nor is his curiosity stimulated.

**"It's a Way They Have in the Army."** By Lady Helen Forbes. London: Duckworth. 1905. 6s.

One wonders whether Lady Helen Forbes' study of our military life will attain the kind of popularity in Germany that ex-Lieutenant Bilse's works have won in England. It is true that there is nothing very flagrantly scandalous in this novel, but any reader who went to it in order to discover what kind of way they have in the army would derive from its pages a distinct impression that our officers and their wives combine a minimum of capacity with a maximum of ill-breeding. The story is slight, but attempts to reproduce the atmosphere of a cantonment in India, and the awful examples are taken chiefly from the Cavalry and the Highlanders. The really good officers, like Beyerlein's good German officers, send in their papers on the first opportunity, despairing of a service in which merit gets no chance. The picture is overdrawn, but there are good touches. A lamentably frequent type of officer's wife is unmercifully portrayed, but we cannot think it likely that a whole regiment would boycott a keen soldier, socially unexceptionable, merely because his colonel disliked him. The description of India as "a paradise for the middle-class" has a good deal of truth, but many people who do not belong to our bourgeoisie find Indian life pleasant enough. The normal officer's wife or daughter in this book is as vulgar as Thackeray's regimental ladies—and Thackeray was not at his best in army matters. Lady Helen Forbes is often amusing, and her work does not suffer from any excess of reticence.

**"Mrs. Darrell."** By Foxcroft Davis. London: Macmillan. 1905. 6s.

This is an American novel, and its ethics are curiously distorted. Thus, we read of Mrs. Darrell, "She had loved Pelham well—loved him with all her soul, her mind, her heart; and that, too, when she was a married woman, loving another than her husband, without the slightest stain of any sort upon her mind, her soul, her heart. She doubted if she would have been half so dutiful a wife, but for Pelham's love for her and her love for him". Again, when widowed and in pecuniary straits, Mrs. Darrell permits a married man, who intends to divorce his perfectly innocent wife, to make her an offer of marriage, and brings herself, though not without a struggle, to accept it. In the diction of the book, also, there is a good deal to offend English taste. There is a crop of the usual Americanisms; but on reading such phrases as "the season opened with a bang" and "to take a toboggan slide in her favour", we seem for the first time to realise that the resources of the English language are indeed inexhaustible. The book is redeemed by the pleasant love-story of two minor characters; and its picture of society in Washington at the present day is interesting and effective. Amid English and Indian scenes the writer does not appear to move with equal certainty.

## NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

**"The United States: a History of Three Centuries."** By W. E. Chancellor and F. W. Hewes. Vol. II. New York and London: Putnam. 1905. 15s. net.

This volume is of much greater interest than the first, one reason being, no doubt, that the records are more complete. The sketch given by the authors of the conditions of the colonies just before the outbreak of the War of Independence is highly instructive. It is conclusively shown that the colonists were ripe for insurrection and that the Stamp Act was the excuse for what had been long preparing. The colonist was for royal prerogative against Parliament, and his mind was permeated by European ideas rather than English. Of our eighteenth-century notions of Cabinet and Constitution he recked little. Active colonial resistance to taxation was modelled on the mediæval practice of forcibly resisting the King's tax collector. The idea that they resented George III.'s attempt to revive his prerogative at the expense of Parliament is a Whig fiction. On the other hand it is clear that directly they no longer experienced the need for English assistance against France the colonies turned against the Mother-country. No doubt restrictions on trade had much to say to the revolt, but by the admission of the authors the English trade laws did little to hinder the colonial trade with foreigners. In fact the laws were not obeyed as the authors state, and did not work any real damage. The colonies had to buy things they could not make for themselves somewhere but to say that the English policy "kept the colonies drained of money" seems to import into the discussion the antiquated fallacy that gold is wealth. The book is profusely illustrated with diagrams and statistical tables which are often both new and ingenious and enable the reader to grasp much more readily the economic and political situation of the colonies themselves or in relation to other countries than he could do by a merely verbal statement.

**"Chronicles of the City of Perugia."** By Francesco Matarazzo. Translated by E. S. Morgan. London: Dent. 1905. 5s. net.

The chronicles of Matarazzo are among the most characteristic writings of the Renaissance. Though portions are lost and the whole record barely covers eleven years they contain the revelations of an epoch and are distinguished by a simplicity and charm of narration which the translator in his introduction rightly compares with the history of Herodotus. Matarazzo's tale of the Baglioni and their adventures throws a more vivid light upon the condition of Italian States during the latter years of the fifteenth century and of Italy in general under the Borgias than any other chronicle of the time. The Baglioni themselves were among the most vicious and gifted of the various Tyrants which held sway in the cities of the Peninsula and one of the charms of this story is to be found in the conflict apparent in the historian's mind between admiration for the many splendid gifts of the Tyrant family, who were his patrons, and repulsion at their methods of rule which brought famine and misery upon the city of Perugia itself. Whatever their moral character, the splendid fighting qualities of these lords of misrule are not to be denied and Matarazzo's battle pictures may vie with those of any chronicler. Mr. Morgan's translation is admirable and well preserves both the spirit and style of the original.

**"The Haunts of Goldsmith."** By J. J. Kelly. Dublin: Sealy. 1905.

Mr. Kelly writes with good sense and taste of Goldsmith's home and haunts in Roscommon, and no one who has travelled in this wild country will say that he exaggerates its beauty and allurements. Perhaps, however, it is a better place to stay than to travel in. One can say this with lively recollection of local train services in this part of Ireland. Athlone is by one of the noblest rivers in the kingdom and within sight of one of the best lakes, but we fear that too many people have only seen the place of necessity from the railway station platform. Goldsmith of course knew the Shannon well and in "Animated Nature" there is at least one passage worth recalling, that in which he describes the babel of the water-side birds, the lapwing whirring and the dismal hollow booming of the bittern. The sound of this last bird was in Goldsmith's youth terrible to the imaginative Irish peasantry. Lissoy, "Sweet Auburn" and Elphin are among the haunts of Goldsmith. They cannot have changed a great deal since his day. The peasantry are surely the wittiest, kindest and most shiftless in the world. The Irish peasant in this part of the country does really deserve the name "good sportsman" which is often applied without the least fitness to people. People who care to make acquaintance with the Irish peasant sportsman as he exists to-day in Roscommon and other parts of Ireland should read Mr. Hewitt's chapter "Pat" in "The Pedagogue at Play". Many a peasant of the Goldsmith district about Elphin or Athlone might have sat for that clever study. Goldsmith was never quite at ease away from his native place, and longed intensely for the day when he might return. "There is something so seducing in that spot in which we first

had existence that nothing but it can please. . . we long to die in that spot which gave us birth, and in that pleasing expectation find an opiate for every calamity." Goldsmith's grave in the Temple Churchyard is unknown despite the stone that bears his name. The choice lines quoted by Mr. Kelly, in which Goldsmith tells of his longing for home and Ireland, remind one much of Cowper.

"The Age of Marie Antoinette." By Charles Newton Scott. London: Leadenhall Press. 1905.

We find this book rather rambling, and considering the subject very slight, but Mr. Scott has an uncommon point of view, and we imagine him to be often nearer truth than the conventional historian of the period. His contention is that there was far more taste, good feeling and virtue among the ruling and upper classes against which the Revolution hurled itself than people to-day admit or are aware of. But, granting this, why the "Age of Marie Antoinette" in particular? Taine, he points out, is almost silent on the fact that there existed "a considerable amount of true Christianity through the worst period of the ancient régime". It was not so with Alexis de Tocqueville, who admitted that he approached the subject of the conduct and faith of the clergy in France with strong prejudices against them, but rose from the study in quite a different mood. He even came to the conclusion that there never had been a body of clergy in the world more remarkable than the French clergy at the time the Revolution came upon them. He decided that they were on the whole patriotic, devout, enlightened. In art and letters Mr. Scott can certainly furnish an imposing list of great names, among them Cosway, Wedgwood, Schiller, Burns, Blake, Sheridan. Who were the greatest orators of the period? Mr. Scott instances two—Burke and Vergniaud. The latter was perhaps one of the greatest orators of all time. Even Carlyle, who paid out his praises to the Girondists grudgingly, seems to have concluded that Vergniaud was glorious to hear. In those "wild coruscations" of eloquence at the last meal of the Girondists Vergniaud's words must have been worth hearing.

Revue des Deux Mondes. 1 Juillet.

M. Ollivier supplies another instalment of the history of the decadence of the Second Empire. His theme this month is the law passed in 1868 according liberty to the press. His account of the proceedings attending this concession shows the hopelessness of endeavouring at that time to conciliate popular opinion and the dangers of turning an autocracy into a limited monarchy. As a matter of fact the Opposition was not conciliated and only made use of the opportunity supplied them by increased liberty to attack the Emperor and his Ministers. The Emperor seems to have been hardly capable of taking a strong line at all, "il flottait" with a bias towards doing the more immediately popular thing. Rouher resigned but under imperial pressure withdrew his resignation and, against his better judgment, pressed on the law. The whole incident is highly instructive as to the state of indecision and confusion among the Emperor's advisers during the latter years of his reign. M. Lafenestre's article on mediæval art in Southern Italy is well worth reading.

#### RECENT LAW BOOKS.

"Ancient Law." By Henry Sumner Maine. London: Murray. 1905. 2s. 6d.

This is a remarkable reprint of a very famous book which created an epoch in the study of English law and institutions and has passed through ten editions. The reprint is remarkable because it is equal in type and paper for all reading purposes to the more expensive forms in which the treatise has hitherto appeared. What seems very well worth emphasising is that this cheap reprint should make Maine known to many who may have imagined "Ancient Law" to be a law book merely, and who therefore have not thought of it for general reading. But it is not a technical work and it is in fact one of the most fascinating productions which any cultivated reader could have placed in his hands. Maine is always remembered, even when his subject-matter has faded from the mind, for his charming style. There should be a very much wider public for the book than that of the Universities or the Inns of Court, and we trust that this cheap reprint will find it out. Maine is a landmark in the history of English opinion on legal subjects as Mr. Dicey has pointed out. The appearance of the book in 1861 marked the decline of the strictly Benthamite analytic and non-historical study of legal institutions. Mr. Dicey specially notes the significance of the title, "Ancient Law: its Connection with the Early History of Society and its Relations to Modern Ideas".

"Constitutional Law of England." By Edward Wavell Ridges. London: Stevens. 1905. 12s. 6d.

Mr. Ridge's book belongs to a different class from such accounts of the constitution as Anson or Dicey. It is less

(Continued on page 94.)

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theoretical and more descriptive; and the philosophy which is often so plausible but vague, and so interesting but unpractical, in both ancient and modern books on English legal and political institutions, finds little or no place in it. The author describes its character accurately in the preface when he says that it is a compilation which may enable a student to obtain a comprehensive and succinct view of English legislative, executive and judicial institutions both at home and in the wider dominions and dependencies of the Crown over-sea. This idea has been admirably executed, and on what may be termed the statics of the British constitution, that is the description of actual existing institutions without regard to their changes and transitions, Mr. Ridges' work will be found satisfactory and useful both to students of law and to writers and speakers on political subjects. The range he covers is immense; he seems to have collected all the relevant facts, and he states them concisely, broadly and accurately. Perhaps the chief fault is that he errs on the side of copiousness. It would have been more in accordance with the real character of Mr. Ridges' design to have omitted some of the unsettled topics such as Imperial Federation, the Fiscal Policy and some others; and in these we should include the chapter in which sketches are given of the constitution of the United States and the Swiss Confederation; and we should certainly include the sketch of the inchoate proposals for army reorganisation which, whatever else may be said of them, have introduced no change as yet into the character of the English constitutional law, or as we should prefer to say of British constitutional law.

"The Corrupt and Illegal Practices Prevention Act." By Ernest Arthur Jelf. London: Sweet and Maxwell. Third Edition. 1905. 7s. 6d.

Members of Parliament, candidates for Parliament, their committees and agents, returning officers, election agents and lawyers, in short all who have any responsible part to play in elections, will find Mr. Jelf's book one of the most convenient and readable of the many that are at their service. The acts on which Mr. Jelf's chapters are based, and which are annotated with the judicial decisions, are the acts of 1883 and 1895. This third edition differs very considerably from the previous editions. Chapter I. introduces the subject in a novel but very sensible form with an election petition into which are introduced all the breaches of election law upon which a petition can be grounded. To this is added an abstract of the particulars of illegal practices in the Montgomery Boroughs case, a formidable document which equally serves as a precedent of what to do and what to avoid doing in framing similar particulars. Another new chapter deals with the most difficult portion of election law—the responsibility of candidates for the acts of their agents; and the law which would vitiate an election is a peculiar law of agency utterly different for instance from that which would subject a candidate to a penalty or an indictment. It is comparable to the law of master and servant rather than to that of principal and agent. Mr. Jelf thinks that the one serious wrong remaining in election law is that which enables a rich man or an association to deposit the £1,000 necessary for bringing a petition but to put forward the petition in the name of a man of straw. If the petition fails the candidate cannot get his costs over the £1,000, and in addition he has to pay his own expenses.

"Evidence in Brief." By V. Devereux Knowles. London: Effingham Wilson. 1905. 2s. 6d. net.

This is a little book which will enable non-professional readers to gain a very fair idea of the elementary rules of evidence in civil and criminal cases. We do not think it can fairly be called a student's book. To them law should be a science, and principles are more important than rules. It would not be satisfactory to any serious student to be told, for example, that a leading question must not be put in examination in chief, but in cross-examination may be "because it is the easiest way of obtaining the information required". Moreover men who act as magistrates though they are not lawyers ought to read much more seriously than this sketchy book invites them to do, and it is ludicrous that it should be recommended to practitioners.

"The Law Relating to Factories and Workshops." Part I. By Mrs. H. J. Tennant. Part II. By Arthur Llewelyn Davies. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode. 1905. 5s.

This is the fifth edition of one of the most useful treatises on factory and workshop legislation, and it brings the law, which is constantly growing in this department, up to date. It is still known as Abraham and Davies though Miss May E. Abraham, who in 1896 when the first edition appeared was a Superintending Inspector of Factories, has since become Mrs. H. J. Tennant. Her share in the work was Part I. which is a practical guide to the law and its administration; Mr. Davies is responsible for the annotation of the acts and the treatment of the legal decisions.

For this Week's Books see page 96.

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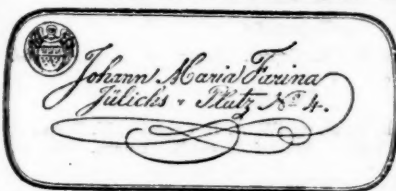
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Clerk of the London County Council.

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The Stock will be registered in the Company's books on or after the 7th November, 1905, but allotments paid up in full in anticipation may be registered forthwith. (N.B.—The Books of the Stock will be shut from the 14th October, 1905, to the 3rd November, 1905, inclusive.)

Applications for the Stock must be on printed forms, which may be obtained at the Chief Cashier's Office, Bank of England, E.C.; at the Branches of the Bank of England; at the offices of the Company, 28-30, Nicholas Lane, London, E.C.; or of Messrs. Mullens, Marshall & Co., 4, Lombard Street, E.C.

The List of Applications will be closed on or before Friday, the 21st day of July, 1905.

Bank of England, E.C., 14th July, 1905.

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NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN that an INTERIM DIVIDEND of 10 per cent. (Two Shillings per share) has been declared by the Board for the period ending 31st of July, 1905.

This Dividend will be payable to all Shareholders registered in the books of the Company at the close of business on 31st of July, 1905, and to holders of Coupon No. 2 attached to Share Warrants to Bearer.

The Transfer Books will be closed from 1st to 7th August, 1905, both days inclusive. The Dividend will be payable to South African registered Shareholders from the Head Office, Johannesburg, and to European Shareholders from the London Office, No. 1 London Wall Buildings, E.C., on or about the 4th of September, 1905.

Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer are informed that they will receive payment of the Dividend on presentation of Coupon No. 2 at the London Office of the Company.

COUPONS must be left FOUR CLEAR DAYS for examination, and will be payable at any time on or after the 4th of September, 1905.

By order of the Board,

ANDREW MOIR, London Secretary.

London Office: No. 1 London Wall Buildings, E.C.,

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